PAHARI LANGUAGE A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

SIDDHESHWAR VARMA



VISHVESHVARANAND VISHVA BANDHU INSTITUTE
OF SANSKRIT AND INDOLOGICAL STUDIES
PANJAB UNIVERSITY
HOSHIARPUR
1978

Panjab University Indological Series—19

PAHARI LANGUAGE A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

पञ्जाब-विश्वविद्यालयीय-भारती-शोध-ग्रन्थमाला-- १९

प्रधान-सम्पादक: —के. वी. शर्मा

General Editor — K. V. SARMA

Printed by DEVA DATTA Shastri at the V. V. R. I. Press. and published by K. V. SARMA, Acting Director, V. V. B. I. S. & I. S., Panjab University, Hoshiarpur

सर्वेऽधिकाराः सुरक्षिताः

प्रथम संस्करणम्, २०३५ (वि.)

प्रकाशकृत्

विश्वेश्वरानन्द-विश्वबन्धु-संस्कृत-भारती-शोध-संस्थानम् पञ्जाब-विश्वविद्यालयः साधुम्राश्रमः, होशियारपुरम् (पं., भारतम्)



All Rights Reserved

First Edition, 1978

Publishers

VISHVESHVARANAND VISHVA BANDHU INSTITUTE
OF SANSKRIT AND INDOLOGICAL STUDIES
PANJAB UNIVERSITY
P.O, Sadhu Ashram, Hoshiarpur (Pb., India)

INTRODUCTION

Pahari: A linguistic analysis, issued as No. 19 of the Panjab University Indological Series describes analytically the different dialect groups spoken in the sub-Himalayan region from Nepal in the east to Bhadarwah in the west. A detailed survey of these dialects had been made by Sir G. A. Grierson in Vol. IX, Pt. iv of his monumental 11-volume Linguistic Survey of India (1903-2), which was effectively summarised, subsequently, by Dr. Siddheshwar Varma and issued in three volumes by the Vishveshvaranand Institute (1972-76). While the said Summary was in press, it was dicided to issue some of the more important sections, also, separately, for the benefit of scholars interested in individual language families. The present publication stems out of this decision.

The Pahārī dialects belong to the Indo-Aryan stock and fall into three main groups, with Nepālī in the east, Kumaunī and Gaṭhwālī in the middle and Western Pahārī in the west. Unlike certain other Indian languages, which have few dialects, the main Pahār,ī other than Nepālī, has several dialects. Nepālī (Naipālī, Newārī), to be termed more correctly Khas-Kurā, Gorkhālī or Parvatīya from the linguistic point of view, occurs in two forms, literary and collequial, and does not have any dialect. The main dialects of Kumaunī, spcken in Almora and the northern part of Nainital district, is Khas-parjiyā. Rāṭhī, Badhānī and Gaṅgāpāriyā are the dialects of Garhwālī, spoken in Garhwal and the adjoining districts of Almora and Dehra Dun. Western Pahārī comprises several groups of dialects spoken over distinct tracts from Dehra Dun in the east to Bhadrawah in the west, the main groups being Jaunsārī and Sirmaurī, Baghāṭi and Kiuṭhalī, Kuļuī and Satlaj, Maṇḍēāļī, Chamēālī and Bhadarwāh.

In the account presented in the following pages, care has been taken to identify the exact geographical discribution of each dialect and analyse its linguistic peculiarities, grammatical categories and syntax. It is also noteworthy that standard words and sentences in the dialects of each group have been separately set out in the form of tables in order to facilitate a comparative study thereof. It is to be hoped that the material presented and the method of presentation thereof would serve the propose for which they are intended.

As in the case of the three volumes of the Summary by Dr. Varma of the Linguistic Survey of India referred to above, the present reprint was also carefully seen through the press by Dr. S. L. Dogra, Asstt. Librarian, and Dr. Trilochan Singh Bindra, Lecturer, in this Institute. While acknowledging the services of these two scholars in the above regard, I also desire to put on record my thanks to the staff of the V. V. R. I. Press for the neat printing and nice get-up of this publication.

K. V. SARMA

Vishveshvaranand Institute, Panjab University, Hoshiarpur, September 1, 1978

CONTENTS

	Pages
INTRODUCTION	v
PAHĀRI	
Introduction	1
KHAS-KURA or NAIPALI	
Introduction	2
Select words and sentences	10
CENTRAL PAHĀŖI	
Introduction	13
Kumaunī	13
Khasparjiya	21
Garhwālī	24
Rathī or Rathwālī	29
Badhān ī	33
Tehrī Garhwalī or Gangapariya	35
Select words and sentences	38
WESTERN PAHÄRI	
Introduction	43
Jaunsārī	47
Sirmāurī	52
Sirmāurī Dharthī	52
Sirmāurī Girīpārī	55
Baghāṭī	58
Select words and sentences	62
THE KIŪŢHALI GROUP	
Introduction	67
Kiuṭhalī	67
Handuri	71
Simla Sirajī	73
Śŏrāchōlī	75
Kochi	76
Standard words and sentences	78

CONTENTS

	Pages
THE SATLAJ GROUP	
Introduction	83
Standard words and phrases in Södochi	87
KULU GROUP	
Introduction	89
Kuļuī	89
Inner Sirājī	92
Sainjī	95
Standard words and sentences	98
THE MANDI GROUP	
Introduction	101
Maṇḍĕaļi	101
Maṇḍĕāļī Pahāŗī	104
Sukētī	105
Standard words and sentences	106
CHAMÈALI	
Introduction	109
Standard Chamĕāļī	110
Gadı	113
Churăhī	117
Paṅgwāļi	120
Standard words and sentences	124
THE BHARDRAWAH GROUP	
Introduction	129
Bhadrawāhī and Bhaļēsī	130
Pāḍarī	134
Standard words and sentences	137
GUJURI	
Introduction	139
Gujuri of Hazara	141
Gujuri of Swat	143
Gujuri of Kashmir	145
Standard words and phrases	148

PAHĀŖĪ

The word 'Pahāṛī' is applied to the groups of languages spoken in the Sub-Himalayan hills extending from Bhadrawah, north of the Panjab, to the eastern parts of Nepal. To its north and east various Himalayan Tibeto-Burman languages are spoken. To its west there are Aryan languages connected with Kāshmīrī and western Pañjābī, and to its south it has the Aryan languages of the Panjab and the Gangetic plain.

The three main divisions. The Pahāṛī languages fall into three main groups. In the extreme east there is Khas-Kurā or Eastern Pahāṛī, commonly called Naipālī, the Aryan language spoken in Nepal. Next, in Kumaon and Garhwal, we have Central Pahāṛī languages, Kumaunī and Gaṛhwālī. Finally in the west we have the Western Pahāṛī languages spoken in Jaunsār Bāwar, the Simla Hill States, Kulu, Mandi and Suket, Chamba, and Western Kashmir.

The language. It is a remarkable fact that, although Paharī has little connection with the Pañjābī, Western and Eastern Hindī, and Biharī spoken immediately to its south, it shows manifold traces of intimate relationship with the languages of Rajputana. The mass of the Aryan speaking population of the Himalayan tract in which Pahārī is spoken belongs, in the west to the Kanēt and, in the east, to the Khas caste. The Kanēts themselves are closely connected with Khasas, and one of their two sub-divisions bears that name. The other (the Rao) sub-division, is believed to be of Gurjara descent.

The earliest immigrants to this Pahārī tract of whom we have any historical information were the Khaśas, a race probably hailing from Central Asia and originally speaking an Aryan, but not necessarily an Indo-Aryan, language. They were followed by the Gurjars, a tribe who invaded India about sixth century A.D. and occupied the same tract, then known as Sapādalaksha. At that

time, they also spoke an Aryan, but not necessarily an Indo-Aryan language. Of these Gurjaras the bulk followed pastoral pursuits and became merged in and identified with the preceding Khasa population. Others were a fighting men, and were identified by the Brāhmans with Kshatriyas. In this guise they invaded Eastern Rajputana from Spādalaksha, and possibly, western Rajputana from Sindh, and founded as Rājpūts the great Rājpūt states of Rajputana.

The Pahārī languages although, with the Khaśa basis thus historically related to Paiśācī, are much more closely related to Rājasthānī. This must be mainly due to the Gūjar influence. Then there was a constant reflux of emigration on the part of the Gūjar-Rājpūts from Rajputana and the neighbouring parts of India. The reimmigration was increased by the oppression of the Mughal rule in India proper, and there are historical notices of tribe after tribe, and leader after leader, abandoning their established seats in Rajputana, and seeking refuge from Musalmān oppression in the hills from which they had originally issued to conquer the Gangetic valley.

Whereas the dialects spoken in Sāpadlaksha proper are free from the influence of Tibeto-Burman languages, the language spoken in Nepal presents a mixed character due to the presence of a large Tibeto-Burman element in the population. Not only many words, but even special phrases of grammar, such as the use of the agentive case before all tenses of the transitive verb, and the employment of a complete honorific conjugation, are plainly borrowed from the speech of the surrounding Tibeto-Burmans.

[LSI pp. 2-16]

KHAS-KURĀ OR NAIPĀLĪ

Khas-kurā is the Aryan language spoken in Nepal. It is primarily the language of the Gorkha rulers of the country, while the mass of the population still uses the various indigenous Tibeto-Burman languages. The ruling classes of Nepal maintain that they are of Rajput origin, and their language, which is the lingua franca of the country is still connected with the Mēwārī-

Mārwārī dialect of Rājasthānī spoken in Udaipur which they claim as their original home. [LSI pp. 17-18]

Name of language. The language passes under various names. Furopeans call it Nēpālī or Naipālī, i.e. the language of Nepal. This is a misnomer, for it is not the language of Nepal, but only that of the Aryan rulers of the country. The inhabitants of Nepal itself gave this name (in a slightly corrupted form) to the principal Tibeto-Burman language of the country, Newārī and call the Aryan language Khas-kurā or Khaśa-speech. It is also called Gorkhāli, Pārbatiyā (used in Nepal by those who speak the language) and Eastern Pahārī. [LSI p. 18]

Dialects. No information is available as to whether Khaskurā possesses any local dialect or not. There are important differences between the literary and the colloquial forms. The latter borrows idioms from the Tibeto-Burman language spoken in the neighbourhood, which materially affect both declension and conjugation. Certain broken tribes of the Central Himalaya speak a corrupt Khas-kurā. In each case it can hardly be said that they employ a genuine dialect. All that they do is to speak bad Khas-kurā, The tribes which have adopted this incorrect Khas-kurā are three in number, viz. Dahī, Daḍhī, or Daṛhī, Dēnwār or Dōnwār and Kuswār.

[LSI pp. 18-19]

The following is the brief sketch of the grammar of Khaskur \bar{a} :

Pronunciation. The phonetic system of Khas-kurā is the same as in other Indo-Aryan languages. As in many other Indo-Aryan vernaculars, there is a short e (like e in 'net') as well as the long \bar{e} ; and a short o (like first o in 'promote') besides the long \bar{o} . Nouns which in Hindī end in a long \bar{i} , often shorten it in Khas-kurā. Thus the Khas-kurā word corresponding to the Hindī $n\bar{u}r\bar{i}$ is $n\bar{a}ri$ or $n\bar{a}r\bar{i}$. Vowels are very frequently nasalised; thus, chhu or $chh\bar{u}$, 'I am'. [LSI pp. 21-23]

Article. Ek or yak, 'one', is commonly employed as an indefinite article. Tyō is employed in the sense of definite article. Chaĩ, chāhi or chāhĩ appended to a word has the same force, as jētho chaĩ chōrō, 'the elder son'. [LSI p. 23]

Nouns: Gender. There are two genders, masculine and feminine. Nouns indicating females, and these only, are feminine. All others are masculine. This method of expressing gender is due to the influence of the surrounding Tibeto-Burman languages in Nepal.

Number. There are two numbers, singular and plural. The plural is formed by adding -haru before which nouns ending in -ō change -ō to -ā. Thus, chākar-haru, 'servants'; kēṭō, 'a boy'; kēṭā-haru, 'boys'. This -haru is not usually employed with nouns signifying inanimate things.

Case. Cases are generally formed by means of postpositions. Certain nouns are put into an oblique form before these are added. In the case of nouns in $\bar{\sigma}$, and u, the oblique form singular ends optionally in $-\bar{a}$, and the oblique form plural is the same as the nominative plural. Nouns ending in consonants remain unchanged in the singular, but optionally take -a in the oblique plural. Thus, $h\bar{a}t$, 'a hand'; obl. sing. and nom. plur. $h\bar{a}t$, obl. plur. $h\bar{a}t$ or $h\bar{a}t\bar{a}$. The oblique form in $-\bar{\sigma}$ or -u (i.e. the same as the nominative) is due to the influence of the surrounding Tibeto-Burman languages which do not employ an oblique form. Indeed, the influence of Tibeto-Burman languages has resulted in the complete confusion of the oblique and of the direct form, the direct form being often used for the oblique, and vice versâ, the oblique form being continually employed for the nominative.

Cases are formed by adding different suffixes the most common of which are,—agentive and instrumental, $-l\bar{e}$; accusative and dative, $-l\bar{a}i$; ablative, $-b\bar{a}ta$; locative, $-m\bar{a}$. The genitive postposition is $-k\bar{o}$, which, as in Hindōstānī, is an adjective without affecting its meaning. It is, in this way, very frequently added to the past participle, which, as should, properly be the case, is then put into the oblique form. Thus, $bhay\bar{o}$, $bhay\bar{e}-k\bar{o}$ (or $bhay\bar{a}-k\bar{o}$), 'been, become'. [LSI pp. 23-28]

Adjectives. Most adjectives are immutable, the only ones which change are those that end in $-\bar{o}$ or in -u. These change the termination to -i or $-\bar{i}$ when agreeing with a feminine noun,

and to -a when agreeing with a masculine noun in the oblique case singular or in the plural. As in the case of nouns in $-\bar{o}$ and in -u, the oblique form singular as often as not ends in $-\bar{o}$ instead of -a.

The comparative is formed by adding -bhanda, 'than', and superlative by adding, -sab bhanda 'than all', or -sabai bhanda, 'than even all'. [LSI p. 28]

Pronouns. In the pronouns, the plural is commonly used instead of the singular. In this respect, the singular is familiar or disrespectful, while the plural is formal or respectful.

Some of the forms of first two personal pronouns are; ma, 'I'; $m\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, 'my'; $h\bar{a}mi$, 'we'; $h\bar{a}mr\bar{o}$, 'our'; ta, 'thou'; $t\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, 'thy'; timi, 'ye'; $timr\bar{o}$, 'your'.

In the plural -haru is often added, as hami-haru. The respectful pronouns of the second person are $-\bar{a}phu$, 'Your Honour', and $tap\bar{a}i$, or $tap\bar{a}ni$, 'Your Honour'. Both are declined regularly like substantives. The demonstrative pronouns $ty\bar{o}$ and u are employed as pronouns of the third person. The regular demonstrative pronouns are $y\bar{o}$, 'this', and u, 'that', or 'he'. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{o}$, 'who?' and $k\bar{e}$, 'what?' (neuter). [LSI pp. 28-30]

Verbs. The Khas-kurā verb has borrowed some of its formations from the surrounding Tibeto-Burman languages, amongst which the most noteworthy are the aorist tense, and the impersonal honorific conjugation. The simple conjugation may be either positive or negative. The negative conjugation is confined to certain tenses.

Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. There are two verbs substantive in the present, one formed from the base chha and the other from the base $h\bar{v}$. The former base is treated as a participle, and, hence, in some persons it has special forms for the feminine. The present is thus conjugated:

'I am', etc.

	Sing.		Plur.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	chhu, chhũ	with the same of t	$chha ilde{u}$	
2.	chhas	chhes	chhau	chheu
3.	chha	chhe	chha n	chhin

The second form of the present tense of verb substantive is principally employed in asking questions. It is thus conjugated:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$h\widetilde{u}$	haũ
2.	hos, hawas	hau
3.	hō	hun

The past tense is thus conjugated. Like chha, the tense is treated participally, and there are feminine forms.

	Sing.		Plur.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	thiyẽ ~ thiyã		thiyu	-p
2.	thiis		thiyan	s deren shoul
3.	$thiy\bar{o}$	thiī	thiye, thiya	thiin
	This is often co	ntracted, so t	hat we also have	:
	Sing.		Plur.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	thẽ, thyẽ, thyã	and the same of th	$thy \widetilde{u}$	Sections
2.	this		thyau	A Lindania
3.	$thy \sigma$	$thar{\imath}$	thē, thyē, thyā	thin

All the above conjugations have negative forms also.

Simple positive verb. (a) Roots ending in a consonant.

The infinitive and the future passive participle are the same in form, both being made by suffixing -nu to the root. Thus, garnu, 'to do', or 'it is to be done'. Both have an oblique form ending in -na or $-n\bar{a}$.

The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{o}$ to the root. Thus, $gard\bar{o}$, 'doing'.

The past participle is formed by adding -yō to the root. Thus, garyō, 'did'. In Khas-kurā the past participle of transitive verbs has lost their original meaning. Thus, garyō does not mean 'done' but 'one who has done'. This participle is adjective and has a feminine ending in -i and oblique in -e.

The old present, now generally employed as a present subjunctive or as an imperative, occurs in all Indo-Aryan languages in much the same form. It is made by adding the personal terminations to the root direct. Thus, garũ, 'I do, I may do'.

The future is formed by adding the syllable -lā to the old present, as in Rājasthānī (Mārwārī) and somewhat as in Bihārī (Bhojpurī). The agrist tense is quite commonly employed as a future.

The past tense is formed by adding the personal terminations to the past participle. In the third person singular masculine and feminine, and in the third person plural masculine no terminations are added. Thus, $gary\bar{o}$, 'he did'; $gar\tilde{e}$ ($gary\tilde{e}$, $\sim gary\tilde{a}$), 'I did'. The past tense of a neuter verb is exactly the same as that of a transitive verb, and both agree with the subject, and not with the object as in the case of Hindi transitive verbs.

The aorist tense is formed by suffixing the present tense of the auxiliary verb to the root. The latter remains unchanged, but the former is conjugated throughout, and any optional form may be used. Thus, gar-chhu, 'I do'. This tense is formed on the

analogy of the present tense of the adjoining Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in Nepal.

What may be called a past aorist is made in a similar way by suffixing the past tense of the auxiliary verb to the root. This tense seems to imply continuous action.

(b) Roots ending in a vowel. All verbs whose roots end in a vowel may optionally nasalize that vowel before any consonant except v. In the agrist tense, before chhu, etc., the nasal becomes n. Many verbs having bases ending in $-\bar{a}u$ drop the u before v and i and generally have anunasika, not n in the agrist; thus, garauchhu, 'I cause, shall cause, or caused to make'.

Simple negative conjugation. When the negative is employed with a verb it is sometimes prefixed as a separate word, as is the case in Hindi, and sometimes suffixed to the verb as an enclitic, in some instances even coming between the stem and the personal termination.

The impersonal honorific conjugation. All Indo-Arvan languages have honorific forms of the verb, but Khas-kurā has an entire honorific conjugation. When a person speaking Khas-kurā wishes to say politely 'he did' he says tes-lē garnu bhō, lit., 'by him doing became'. Similarly 'you did' would be tapāñi-lē garnu-bhō, 'by your Honour doing became'. It will thus be seem that whatever the subject is the verb itself, in the form of the honorific conjugation, is always in the third person singular masculine. This form of the honorific conjugation is made by conjugating the direct infinitive with the appropriate tense of the verb $h\tilde{u}nu$ 'to become'. Thus, we have, garnu-hunē, 'doer, one who is about to do'; dinu-hos, 'please give'. In the past tense the contracted form bho is generally employed for bhayo, the past tense of hunu; lagnu bhō, 'began to do'.

Another form of the honorific conjugation is more Aryan in its construction. Instead of saying 'by him doing became', they sometimes employ the noun of agency with the verb $h\tilde{u}nu$, 'to

become', conjugated as a personal verb. Thus, tyō garnē bhayō, 'he became a doer'.

Passive voice. As in Mārwārī Rājasthānī, Khas-kurā has a regular passive voice. In Mārwārī it is formed by adding -ij to the root, and in Khas-kurā by adding -ī (often i or iv). Thus from the root gar, 'make', we have the passive root garī, 'be made', which is conjugated like any other verb ending in a vowel.

Causal verbs. Khas-kurā usually forms its causal verbs by the addition of au to the root; thus, garnu, 'to do', garāūnu, 'to cause to be done'. [LSI pp. 30-50]

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN KHAS-KURĀ OR NAIPĀLĪ

English

Khas-kurā or Naipālī

one

ēk (-waṭā), yek, yak, yēuṭā, auṭā

two

dui (-wațā)

three

tīn (-watā)

four

chār (-waṭā)

hand

hāt

foot

godā, pāu

head

ţāukō, sir

a father

bābu

of a father

bābu-kō

to a father

bābu-lāi

two fathers

dui bābu-haru

Iam

ma chhu (hũ)

thou art

tã chhas, (hos)

he is

u (~ tyō) chha, (hō)

we are

hāmi-haru chhaũ, (haũ)

you are

timi-haru chhau (hau)

they are

tini-haru (~ uni-haru) chhan, (hun)

I was

ma thiye

thou wast

tã thiis

he was

tyō thiyō

we were

hāmi-haru thiyaũ

English

Khas-kurā or Naipālī

you were

timi-haru thiyau

they were

tini-haru thiyē

I shall be

ma hũlā

I beat

ma (mai-le) kuţũ, kuţa-chhu

thou beatest

tă (taĩ-lē) kuṭ, kuṭda-chhas

he beats

tyō (tes-lē) kuṭē, kuṭda-chha

we beat

hāmi-haru (-lē) kuṭau, kuṭda-chhau

you beat

timi-haru (-lē) kuṭau, kuṭda-chhau

they beat

tini-haru (-lē) kutun, kutda-chhau

I beat (past)

mai-le kuțe

thou beatest (past)

taĭ-lē kuțis

he beat (past)

tes-lē kutyō

we beat (past)

hami-haru-lē kutyū

you beat (past)

timi-haru-le kutyau

they beat (past)

tini-haru-lē kutē

I shall beat

ma (mai-lē) kuţũ-lā

[LSI pp 81-99]

•

CENTRAL PAHĀŖĪ

Speaking roughly the Central Pahārī is the language of the western portion of the ancient Sapādalaksha, viz. of the lower Himālaya between Nepal and the Panjab, but omitting the Jaunsar-Bawar tract of Dehradun.

Central Pahārī includes two closely connected languages, Kumaunī spoken in Kumaun and Garhwālī of Garhwal, which have been described separately in the following pages.

That Central Pahārī and Rājasthānī have close relationship. It becomes clear when a comparison with their principal grammatical forms is made. This would be pointed, where necessary, in the following pages.

[LSI pp. 101-107]

KUMAUNÏ

Kumauni is the Aryan language spoken in the sub-Himalayan tract known as Kumaun, which may be taken as including the whole of the Almora district and the northern part of the Naini Tal district of United Provinces.

The original inhabitants of Kumaun, so far as history takes us, as elsewhere in the sub-Himalayan tract, were the Khaśas, and the Khas, or Khasiyā tribe still forms an important element of the population. In Kumaun, most of these are now classed as Brāhmins or as Rājpūts. For many centuries Gūjars and Rājpūt emigrants have been entering this sub-montane tract.

The Rājpūt rulers, who ruled this tract for about nine centuries imposed their own language and customs upon the Khasas and Gūjars, whom they conquered. The Khasas, themselves, claimed to be Rājpūts by origin, and intermarriages that resulted further tended to assimilate their tribal customs and language to those of their conquerors. One result of this has

been the complete disappearance of the old Khaśa language as an independent form of Rājasthānī. There are, however, certain well-defined peculiarities in Kumaunī, such as frequent occurrence of epenthesis and disaspiration, which it is difficult to explain otherwise than by assuming the reaction of the Khaśa language that might naturally be expected.

[LSI pp. 108-109]

Dialects. Besides the standard literary Kumaunī which is spoken all over the Kumaun area as the polite form of conversation, Kumaunī has roughly twelve varieties. These can be divided into two groups one represented by Kumaiyā dialect of Pargana Kali Kumaun, and the other by Khas-parjiyā. The chief peculiarity of the standard dialect is that it has preserved the terminations of nouns and verbs in full, and this is also the case with Kumaiyā, while Khas-Parjiyā and most of the other so-called dialects tend to drop them. [LSI pp. 109-110]

The following is the grammatical sketch of the standard dialect:

Pronunciation. The pronunciation of vowels varies from place to place and amongst different classes of society. The description given here represents the pronunciation used in conversation by educated Kumaunīs of Almora. \overline{A} has two sounds, viz., \overline{a} as in German 'Mann', and the second, regular long \overline{a} of Hindī. E sounds like the e in 'set', as in cheli, 'a daughter'. Ai sounds like the a in 'sat', as in haith. $\overline{A}i$ is like that of the i in 'right'. It principally occurs in tatsama words, such as chāitra. The sound au is always long, and is pronounced like the a in 'ball', and not like the au of the 'house', thus bhaut, 'much'.

When a is followed by \hat{a} it tends to become itself \hat{a} also. Thus, baro, 'great', has its plural bara. When e or \bar{e} is followed by \hat{a} , it becomes $y\hat{a}$. Thus, mero, 'my', has its masculine plural myara and the Hindi word $m\bar{e}la$ becomes myala in Kumauni. Similarly, latter o or \bar{o} when followed by \hat{a} becomes $w\hat{a}$. Thus, roto, 'a cake', has its plural rwata. When e or o precedes o, many people change them to $y\bar{o}$ and $y\bar{o}$, respectively. Thus, they pronounce mero, 'my', $my\bar{o}ro$, and $b\bar{o}jo$, 'a load', as $bw\bar{o}jo$.

L and l when medial or final are often dropped, and to prevent the hiatus thus called, w is generally inserted in its place. Thus, bàdal or bàdaw, 'a cloud'; beliyà or beiyà, 'yesterday'. There is a strong tendency to disaspirate. Thus, bhūnno or būnno, 'to fry'. The cerebral n is very common.

As in Khas-kurā, there is a preference in Kumaunī for short vowels at the end of a word. Thus we have wami, not namī, 'famous'. [LSI pp. 113-116]

Article. The numeral $\bar{e}k$, 'one', is commonly employed as an indefinite article. As usual the place of the definite article is supplied by a demonstrative pronoun. [LSI p. 116]

Nouns: Gender. There are two genders, masculine and feminine. These generally follow the Hindi and Rājasthāni rules. The distinction of gender is not confined to sex as in Khas-kurā. A few words which are feminine in Hindi and Rājasthānī are masculine in Kumaunī. Thus, $\tilde{a}kho$, 'an eye'.

Number. There are two numbers, singular and plural.

Tadbhava nouns which in Hindī end in -a, in Kumaunī, as in Rājasthānī, end in -o. Thus, Hindī chēlā, Kumaunī chelō ($\sim chyōlo$), 'a son'. These nouns form the nominative plural by changing the final o to a; thus bhino, 'a wall', plural bhina. Feminine nouns in i (\sim i) sometimes form the nominative plural in iva ($\sim iva$) as in Hindī. Thus, cheli, 'a daughter', nom. plur. cheliva $\sim cheliva$, but this form is considered vulgar, the nominative plural of such nouns being regularly the same as the singular.

Case. These cases are generally formed by means of postpositions. Certain nouns are put into an oblique form before these are added.

In the case of most nouns, the oblique form singular is the same as the nominative. Thus, $r\grave{a}j\grave{a}-kani$, 'to the king'. But masculine tadbhava nouns in o make the oblique form singular (and also the nominative plural) by changing the o to \grave{a} . Thus,

 $\tilde{a}kho$, 'eye'; obl. form singular and plural $\tilde{a}kha$. Occasionally we come across an oblique form in -ai, which is used for all kinds of nouns. Thus, we have $r\bar{a}jai$ -ki cheli, 'the daughter of the king'. The -ai is even added to a plural oblique form. Thus, $p\bar{a}pinai$ -ki $durda \hat{s}\hat{a}$, 'the evil condition of sinners'.

There are the usual cases, formed respectively with the following postpositions:

Accusative, no postposition, or -kani, -kan, -kaī.

Instrumental and Agent, -le; Instr., ka mariya (=Hindī - $k\bar{e}$ $mar\bar{e}$)

Dative, $-kan\bar{\imath}$, $-ka\tilde{\imath}$, $-tha\tilde{\imath}$, ($\sim -th\tilde{e}$); -huni, $-h\tilde{u}$; $-s\tilde{u}$; -ka lijiya (=Hindī -ke $līy\bar{e}$)

Ablative, -bati, -haī, -hai-bēr; 'from'; -mē-hai; -dagari, 'with'.

Genitive, $-k\delta$ ($-k\lambda$, -ki).

Locative, $-m\tilde{e}$ (\sim -me), 'in, on'; -par, 'on'; -jālai.

[LSI pp. 116-122]

Adjectives. Except tadbhava adjectives ending in -o and a few others, all adjectives are immutable. These adjectives follow the analogy of Hindi. That is to say, they change o to a when agreeing with a masculine noun which is not in the nominative singular. When agreeing with a feminine noun they change o to i.

Comparison is made, as in Hindi, by putting the thing with which comparison is made in the ablative case. [LSI pp. 122-123]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the first two personal pronouns are; $ma\tilde{\imath}$, 'I'; ham, 'we'; tu, 'thou'; tum, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns yo, 'this', and u, 'that' are also employed as pronouns of the third pronoun. The reflexive pronoun is $ap\overline{u}$, 'self'. The relative pronoun is jo, je. The interrogative pronoun is ko, 'who?', which is declined like jo, except that in the nominative singular its inanimate form is $kya \sim ke$.

[LSI pp. 123-128]

Verbs. In the general principles of its conjugation Kumaunī closely follows Hindī; but the participial tenses all take personal terminations, and there is an independent passive voice formed by adding -ī to the root (as in Khas-kurā).

Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is conjugated as under:

I am, etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$chh\widetilde{\overline{u}}$	$chh\widetilde{\overline{\imath}}{\overline{\imath}}$
2.	chhai, (fem.) chhē	chha
3.	chh	chhan

When this is employed as a verb substantive, except in the second person singular, the above forms are of common gender. Thus, $chh_{\widetilde{u}}$ is both masculine and feminine, and chh means both 'he is' and 'she is'.

When this is employed as an auxiliary verb, the second and third persons singular have optional feminine forms, but are of common gender in the plural. Moreover, when used as an auxiliary the first person singular is $chh\tilde{u}$, not $chh\tilde{u}$, and the second person plural is $chh\bar{a}$, not chhau.

There is a negative verb substantive $nihat\tilde{u} \sim nhat\tilde{u}$ 'I am not, I will not be', which is thus conjugated:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$nhat ilde{u}$ (fem. $nhaty ilde{u}$)	nhāt $\overline{\widetilde{u}}$ (fem. nhàtiy $\overline{\widetilde{u}}$)
2.	nhàtai (fem. nahātyē)	nhàtau (nhātā) (fem.) nhàtiyau (-iyā)
3.	nhàti (fem. nhàte)	nhàtan (fem. nhàtan ~

The past changes for gender. It is the same in form. whether it is a verb substantive or an auxiliary. It is conjugated as follows:

I was', etc.

Sing. Plur. Masc. Fem. Masc. Fem. 1. chhiyā, chhyā chhiyā, chhyā chhiya, chhya chhiya, chhya chhiyē 2. $chh\bar{\imath}$ chhiya chhiya 3. chhivo chhichhivà chhin

Instead of this verb, the perfect and pluperfect tenses of the verb $r\overline{u}n\overline{o}$, 'to remain', are very frequently employed as auxiliaries. The perfect 'I have remained', is used to mean 'I am', and the pluperfect, 'I had remained' is used to mean 'I was'.

Active verb. The infinitive or verbal noun has two forms, —a weak and a strong. The weak infinitive is made by adding -an to the root. Thus, hitan, 'to go'. The strong infinitive is made by adding -ano to the root, with an oblique form in -ànà. Thus, hitano, 'the act of going'; hitàna-ko, 'of going'; hitàna-huṇi, 'to go'.

The present participle is formed in the same way as the strong infinitive, except that the *n* is usually dental, not cerebral. Thus, *hitano*, 'going'. The present participle does not often occur in the direct form, but its oblique form is extremely common. This oblique form may be either *hitani* (really an old locative) or *hitànà*. It means 'in going', 'while going' and is exactly equivalent to the English 'a-going'.

The past participle may be either verbal or adjectival. The verbal past participle may be either weak or strong.

The weak verbal past participle is formed by adding -a to the root. Thus, hita, fem. hiti, 'gone'. The plural is the same as the singular in both genders. This form of the past participle is only used to make the perfect and pluperfect tenses, with the addition of auxiliary verbs. Thus, hita-chh, 'he has gone'. Causal verbs, whose infinitives end in -ūno, forms the weak past participle in ā, Thus, from bachūno, 'to preserve', we have bachā, fem. bachai ~ bachē. The strong verbal past participle is formed by changing the final a of the weak verbal past participle to o. Thus, hito, masc. plur. hità; fem. sing. and plur. hiti. Ca usal verbs form the past participle in -àyo. Thus, bachàyo, 'preserved'.

The adjectival past participle is formed by changing the o of the strong verbal past participle to -iyo. Thus, hitiyo, gone'. It is used when the participle is employed as an independent adjective.

The old present, which, as usual, has generally the sense of a present conditional, is thus conjugated:

'I go, I may go', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	hiţũ	$hi otin ar{u}$
2.	hițai	hiṭau
3.	hit	hiţau, hiţan

The imperative is the same as the old present, except in the second person of which there are several forms, which may be shown as follows:

Sing. hit, hitiyē.

Plur. hițau, hițiyā

The future is formed by adding -lo to the old present, but there are some irregularities. When the subject is feminine, lo becomes li in the singular, except in the first person in which it

remains unchanged. In the plural of both genders, lo becomes là, except in the third person. Thus, hiţūlo. 'I shall go', hiţàlà. 'they shall go'.

The past tense is formed by taking the strong form of the verbal past participle, and adding personal suffixes. In the third person singular and masculine plural, no suffix is added, and we have the past participle standing by itself. The following is the paradigm:

I went', etc.

		Sing.	PI	ur•
Mas	c.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	hiţ y ũ	COMM	$hitar{a}$	********
2.	hiṭai	$hitar{\imath}$	hiṭa	-
3.	hito	$hitar{\imath}$	hit a	hiţin

The above is the conjugation of all regular verbs, both transitive and intransitive. In the case of transitive verbs the tense is treated passively, while $hit\tilde{n}$ (intransitive) means 'I went', $m\tilde{a}r\tilde{n}$ (transitive) means 'I was killed'. I' killed him', would be $m\tilde{a}$ -le $w\tilde{\imath}$ -kani $m\tilde{a}$ ro, 'by me, with reference to him, it was killed', or $m\tilde{a}$ -le u $m\tilde{a}$ ro, 'by me he was killed'.

Passives and causals. A passive voice is formed by adding $-\bar{\imath}$ to the root. Thus, the root of dekh-ano, 'to see', is dekh. The passive root is dekh\bar{\imath} with an infinitive dekh\bar{\imath}no, 'to be visible'. This is conjugated regularly. Its shorter conjunctive participle is, however, dekh\bar{\imath}, not dekh\bar{\imath}i. This conjunctive participle is often prefixed to the verb jano, 'to go', and the whole has then the force of simple passive. Thus, dekh\bar{\imath}-jano, 'to be seen'.

Causal verbs are formed, as in Hindi, by adding -ā to the root. The infinitive ends in -ūno. Thus, dekhūno, 'to cause to see', with a strong verbal past participle dekhàvo and an adjectival participle dekhaivo. So, haūno, 'to cause to become'. Many causals are formed, as in Hindi, by lengthening the root vowel.

[LSI pp. 129-152]

KHASPARJIYA

The Khasparjiyā dialect or Kumaunī is spoken in Pargana Barahmandal, and in the adjoining pattīs is of Pargana Danpur, both of Almora district. The standard form of Kumaunī is the language of the educated classes of the town of Almora. This town is situated in Pargana Barahmandal, and Khasparjiyā differs from the standard dialect only in being the language of the uneducated villagers rather than that of the educated towns folk of the same Pargana.

[LSI p. 180]

Pronunciation. The great phonetic difference between Khasparjiyā and the standard dialect, is that the former regularly drops final vowels which appear in the latter. Thus, the Hindī chēla, 'a son', becomes chelo in standard Kumaunī, but chyal, in Khasparjiyā. Similarly standard Hindī bōjhā, 'a load', standard Kumaunī bojo, Khasparjiyā bwaj. These two words also illustrate another tendency of Khasparjiyā, viz. to change ē of the standard to ya, and to change o of the standard to wa. [LSI p. 180]

Nouns: Number. Allowing for the dropping of a final short vowel the nominative plural is formed as in the standard dialect. Thus in most cases the nominative plural is the same as the singular. But in some cases the medial vowel is lengthened. Thus char, 'a bird', plural char; chyal, 'a son', plural chyal. The plural of feminine nouns ending in $-\bar{\imath}$ is formed by adding $-\nu$; thus, chēli, 'a daughter', plural chēliv.

Case. Here again, with the same reservation as to the elision of the final vowel, the standard dialect is followed, so far as the singular oblique form is concerned.

In the standard, when the oblique form singular ends in a consonant, an a is added before -le, the postposition of the agent. In Khasparjiyā, the corresponding postposition is -l, and it takes -ai before it. Thus, from $k\tilde{a}s$, 'younger', we have $k\tilde{a}sai-l$, 'the younger'. In the standard the usual oblique plural ends in $-a\tilde{u} \sim -\tilde{o}$, of which the nasal is frequently omitted. This remains unchanged before -l of the agent case; thus, bukeṭa \tilde{u} -l, 'with the husks'.

The postpositions employed are much the same as in the standard. We may note:

Agentive-instrumental, : -l

Dative-Accusative, : -kani, -thai, -huni, -k-lijiy

Ablative : -bati, -hai-ber

Genitive, : -k

Locative, : $-m\tilde{e}$, $-m\tilde{i}$, -mau

The only postposition which requires notice is that of genitive. In Khasparjiyā, according to the usual rule, -ko and -ka both become -k, but when this -k represents -ka, an -a- is inserted. The feminine $-k\bar{\imath}$ still retains its final vowel, and -ai- or $-\bar{e}$ - is inserted before it in similar cases. Thus, chyal, 'a son'; gen. sing. chyal-k, chyala-k, and chyala-ki or chyala-ki.

[LSI pp. 180-183]

Adjectives. With the usual proviso as to the elision of final vowel, adjectives closely follow the rules of the standard dialect. Tadbhava adjectives which end in -o in the standard dialect, end in a consonant in Khasparjiyā and usually lengthen the medial vowel in masculine oblique singular and masculine plural; thus, bhal, 'good'; obl. sing. and plur. bhal.

[LSI p. 183]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; mai, $m\bar{i}$, 'I'; ham, 'we'; tu, 'thou'; tum, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns $y\bar{v}$, 'this' and \bar{u} , 'that' are used as pronouns of the third person. The reflexive pronoun is $\bar{a}p\bar{u}$, 'self', of which the emphatic form is $\bar{a}ph\bar{\iota}$. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{v}$, 'who?' and $ky\bar{e}\sim k\bar{e}$ (neut.) 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 184-186]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The conjugation of the verb substantive closely agrees with that of the standard dialect.

The present tense is conjugated as under:

'I am', etc.

Sing. Plur.

1. $chh\tilde{u}$ $chh\tilde{u}$ 2. chai (fem. chhe) chhau3. chh chhan, chhana

When used as an auxiliary verb the 2nd plural is chha.

The past tense is conjugated as under:

'I was', etc.

	Sing,		Plur.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	chhiy	ALMAN	chhiv	-
2.	chhiyē	$chhar{\imath}$	chhiy	
3.	chhiy	chhi	chhiy, chiya	chhin

Finite verb. The infinitive or verbal noun, ends in -n, and is declined like a noun, as in charun-huni, 'for grazing'.

The present participle ends in -n, and the past participle is the same in form as the root.

The imperative takes no termination in the singular, and has -au in the plural. Thus, $d\bar{e}$, 'give thou'; divau, 'give ye'.

The future is conjugated as follows:

'I shall strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	marūl	mārāl
2.	mārlai	mārlā
3.	māraulo	marla

The present is conjugated as follows:

'I strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	mārāchh, mārchh	mār n u
2.	mārãchhai, m ā rchhai	marãchha, marchha
3.	marãchh, marchh	mār n ī

The past tense is conjugated as follows:

'I went', etc.

		Sing.			Plur.
j	Masc.		Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	$hityoldsymbol{ ilde{u}}$		وسنسيو	hiţ	
2.	hite		$hitar{\imath}$	hit	
3.	hiţ		$hi ar{t} ar{\imath}$	hit, hita	hitin, hiti

Passives and causals follow the standard, and no remarks are necessary.

[LSI pp. 186-189]

GARHWĀLĪ

Gaṛhwālī is spoken in Garhwal, which as a tract consists of two portions, viz., the state of Tehri Garhwal and to its east the district of Garhwal, and also by an overflow population in the adjoining districts of Almora, Dehradun, Saharanpur, Bijnor and Moradabad.

Garhwālī is closely allied to Kumaunī. It is a somewhat corrupted form of Rājasthānī. This corruption is not so manifest as it is in the Western Pahārī languages of the Simla Hills, further west, but here and there we come across forms of words which distinctly betray Khaśa influence.

Gaṛhwālī is not a literary language. The dialect of Śrinagar, the ancient capital of the country, is the standard one, and the variations from this standard, are nowhere of importance. The Tehri dialect alone presents prominent divergencies, but even these are not serious.

[LSI pp. 279-280]

The following is the grammatical sketch of the dialect.

Pronunciation. The pronunciation is on the whole the same as in Hindī. Although Gaṛhwālī is distinctly a form of Eastern Rājasthanī, we may say that in its general characteristics it more nearly approaches Hindī than does Kumaunī or Khas-kurā.

[LSI p. 281]

Nouns: Gender. There are two genders, masculine and feminine. These generally follow Hindī and Rājasthānī rules. A few words which are feminine in Hindī, are as in Kumaunī, masculine in Garhwālī.

Number. There are two numbers, singular and plural. Tadbhava masculine nouns which in Hindī end in $-\bar{a}$, in Gaṛhwālī, as in Rājasthānī, end in $-\bar{o}$. Thus, Hindī ghōrā, Gaṛhwālī ghōrō, 'a horse'. These nouns form the nominative plural by changing \bar{o} to \bar{a} as in ghōrā, 'horses'. In the case of other masculine nouns, the nominative plural is the same as the nominative singular. Thus, ghar, 'a house or houses'. Feminine nouns ending in consonants form the nominative plural by adding -a. Thus, $b\bar{a}t$, 'a word', $b\bar{a}ta$, 'words'. Feminine nouns in $-\bar{\imath}$ often change the $-\bar{\imath}$ to \bar{e} in the nominative plural. Thus, $jan\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, 'a woman', plural $jan\bar{a}n\bar{\imath} \sim jan\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$.

Case. As in other Indo-Aryan languages, cases are generally indicated by means of postpositions. Certain nouns are put into an oblique form before they are added.

In the case of most nouns the oblique form singular is the same as the nominative, but the masculine tadbhava nouns in $-\bar{o}$ make the oblique form singular, as well as the nominative plural,

PAHARI-4

by changing the $-\bar{o}$ to $-\bar{a}$. Thus $gh\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, a horse', obl. form sing and nom. plur., $gh\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, The oblique form plural ends in $-a\tilde{u}$ or $-\bar{u}$ (\tilde{u}); thus, $b\bar{a}ta$, 'words'; obl. plur. $b\bar{a}ta\tilde{u}$ or $b\bar{a}t\bar{u}$.

As in Hindī and Rājasthānī, the oblique form, singular or plural, can be employed alone to indicate any case, but it is usual to define the case by adding to it one of the following postpositions:

Agent, -n

Accusative, -, or else -sanī (-sinī) ~ -ku

Instrumental, $-t\bar{e} \sim -n$

Dative, -sanī (-sinī) ~ kū

Ablative, -tē

Genitive, -ko

Locative, -ma (in), -par (on)

The accusative is either the same as the nominative, or when definiteness has to be indicated, the postposition of the dative is added following the same rules as in Hindī.

[LSI pp. 281-284]

Adjectives. Except tadbhava adjectives in $-\bar{o}$, all adjectives are immutable. Tadbhava adjectives in $-\bar{o}$ change the termination to -i when agreeing with a feminine noun. When agreeing with a masculine noun in the plural or in any case of the singular except the nominative, the $-\bar{o}$ is changed to $-\bar{a}$. Thus, bhalā $\bar{a}dm\bar{i}-k\bar{o}$, 'of a goodman'; bhalā janānī, 'a good woman, good women'.

Comparison is made, as usual, by putting the thing with which comparison is made in the ablative; thus, wē-kō bhāī wē-kī bhain tē lambō chha, 'his brother is taller than his sister'; sab-tē achchā kapṛā nikalī-k, having brought out the best clothes'.

[LSI p. 284]

Pronouns. Some of the forms of first two personal pronouns are; $ma\tilde{\imath} \sim m\tilde{\imath}$, 'I'; ham, $ham\tilde{u}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; tum, $tum\tilde{\imath}$, 'you'. The respectful pronoun of the second person is $\bar{a}p$, 'Your Honour'. The demonstrative pronouns $y\bar{\sigma}$ (fem. $y\bar{a}$), 'this' and $\bar{\sigma}$ (fem. $w\bar{a}$) 'that', are also employed as pronouns of the third person.

The reflexive pronoun is ap, 'self', which is used as in Hindi, only with reference to the subject of the sentence. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$, 'who', and the interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{o}$, 'who?, which?' and kya, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 284-286]

Verbs. Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is conjugated as under:

'I am', etc.

	Sing.		Plur.
1.	chhaũ,	chaữ	chhawāũ
2.	chhaī,		chhayaī
3.	chha		chhan

The past tense is masc. sing. chhayō, plur. chhayā; fem. sing. and plur. chhaī for all the three persons.

Active verb. The infinitive or the verbal noun has two forms, a weak and a strong. The strong form is made by adding $-n\sigma$ to the root; thus, $kha-n\sigma$, 'to eat, the act of eating'. The weak infinitive is made by adding -an, or after a vowel, -n to the root. The n of these forms becomes n after n, r, r or l. Thus, $k\tilde{a}pan$ 'to tremble'; maran, 'to strike'.

The present participle is formed by adding the syllable $-d\bar{v}$ to the root. Thus, $mard\bar{v}$, 'striking'. After a vowel the termination is -ndo; thus $kha-nd\bar{v}$, 'eating'. Sometimes instead of this form we meet a form borrowed from Kumaunī which ends in $-n\bar{u}$ (-nu) with a feminine $-n\bar{i}$ ($-n\bar{i}$).

The past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{e}$ (after a vowel, $-y\bar{e}$), $-y\bar{o} \sim -y\bar{u}$ to the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}r-\bar{e}$, $m\bar{a}r-y\bar{o}$, $\sim m\bar{a}r-y\bar{u}$. 'struck'.

The old present, usually employed as a present subjunctive, or as an imperative is thus conjugated:

	Sing.		Plur.
1.	m ā r $ ilde{n}$		mārā
2.	mārī	ř	māry āī, m ā rā
3.	mär		māran

The present has two forms. The first is made by conjugating the present participle with the present tense of the verb substantive as in Hindi. Thus, $mardo\ chhaũ \sim marn a \ chhaũ$, 'I am striking'. Much more common is the other form, made by suffixing terminations to the present participle. It is thus conjugated:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	mārdū	mārdāwā, m ā rdā ũ , m ā rdaũ
2.	$mar{a}rdar{\imath}$	mārdāwā, mārdāī
3.	mārd	mārdin, m ārdān

The future is thus conjugated. Its feminine differs from the masculine:

	Sing.		Plur.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	mārữlo, mārlo	marũlī, marlī	m ā rữlā, mārlā	mārūlī, mārlī
2.	mārilyō, mārilō	mārilī	m ā rily ā , mārilā	mārilī
3.	mārlo	mārlī	marla	mārlī

The past tense and all other tenses formed from past participle are constructed almost exactly as in Hindī; i.e. in the case of transitive verbs, the subject is put in the agentive case, and, when, mutable the verb agrees in gender and number with the

object. The construction differs from Hindī and follows Rājasthānī and Gujarātī in this, that the verb agrees in gender and number with the object, even when the latter is in the dative case. Intransitive verbs are, on the other hand, constructed actively.

There are two forms of the past tense. The first form is made with the past participle in \bar{e} ($m\bar{e}r\bar{e}$). This form does not change for gender in the singular. In the plural n is added. Thus, we have $ma\tilde{i}-n$ $p\bar{a}p$ $kar\bar{e}$, 'I did \sin '; $bar\bar{o}$ $ak\bar{a}l$ $par\bar{e}$, 'a severe famine fell'. The second form of the past tense is, in the case of a transitive verb, simply the past participle, thus, wai-n $b\bar{o}ly\bar{o}$, 'he said'. The second form of the past tense of an intransitive verb has special forms for the first and second persons, but the third person is the same as the past participle. Thus, for the verb $chaln\bar{o}$, 'to go', we have the following forms:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	chaly $\widetilde{\mathfrak{u}}$	chalyā, chalyā
2.	chalī	chalyāī, chalyā
3.	chalyō (fem. chalī)	chalyā (fem. chalī)

The passive voice is formed much as in Hindī, by combining the past participle with the verb jānō, 'to go', but the oblique singular of the participle is usually employed. Thus, khō yē gaī-chhayō, 'he had been lost'.

Causal verbs are formed as in Hindi by adding -\(\bar{a}\) to the root. The infinitive ends in -aun\(\bar{o}\). Thus, charaun\(\bar{o}\), past participle char\(\bar{a}\)y\(\bar{o}\), to cause to graze'. [LSI pp. 288-297]

RĀŢHĪ OR RĀŢHWĀLĪ

This dialect of Gaṛhwālī is the language of the Khasiyās and Pabilās (non-thread wearing castes) and is spoken throughout the centre of the district of Garhwal, over the greater parts of the Chandpur and Dewalgarh Parganas, and also in about thirty villages of the adjoining Patti Malla Chankot in the Pali Pargana of the Almora district.

In the following grammatical sketch mostly attention has been devoted to those points in which the dialect differs from the standard Garhwālī.

Pronunciation. This on the whole is more nearly akin to that of Kumaunī, than is the case with the standard dialect. The vowel \bar{e} is interchangeable with ya; thus we have both $dy\bar{a}$ and $d\bar{e}$, 'give'. When \bar{e} is followed in the next syllable by \bar{o} it optionally becomes $y\bar{o}$. Thus, $m\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ or $my\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, 'my'. In the same way a long \bar{a} followed by \bar{o} becomes \bar{o} . Thus, $ch\bar{o}y\bar{o}$, 'he was', but $chh\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, 'they were'. The vowel \bar{o} , on the other hand, may become $w\bar{a}$ before \bar{a} . Thus, $gh\bar{o}r\bar{i}$, 'a mare', but $ghw\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'a horse'.

[LSI p. 311]

Nouns: Gender. The rules for this are the same as in the standard dialect.

Number. Tadbhava masculine nouns, which in Hindī end in -ā usually end in -ō as in the standard dialect. Sometimes, however, we have the -ā termination, as in ghwārā, 'a horse'. In both cases nominative plural ends in -ā. The final -ā may be shortened to -ā, so that we can also have ghwārā.

Case. The oblique case singular is formed as in the standard dialect, with the usual optional shortening of a final $-\bar{a}$. The oblique plural usually ends in $-\bar{o}$, as in $ch\bar{a}kr\bar{o}-m\bar{a}y-na$, 'from among the servants'.

The following are the usual postpositions employed:

Agentive, -na, -la

Accusative, - or -ganī

Instrumental, -na, -la

Dative, ganī (to), -khunī (to); -thā (to); -k \tilde{u} (for)

Ablative -gaṇī (from); -baṭi (from); -sē, -tē, etc.

Genitive, -kō.

Locative, -mā, -mã (in, into); -par (on); -tal (under).

[LSI pp. 311-313]

Adjectives. These follow the same rules as in the standard dialect. [LSI pp. 313]

Pronouns. Some of the forms of first two personal pronouns are; $m\bar{\imath}$, $m\bar{\imath}$, 'I am'; ham, $ham\bar{u}$, 'we'; $t\bar{u}$, $t\bar{u}$, 'thou'; tum, $tum\bar{u}$, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns yo, $y\overline{o}$ 'this'; wo, 'that', are also used as pronouns of third person. The reflexive pronoun is $aph\overline{u}$, 'self'. The relative pronoun is $j\overline{o}$ or $j\overline{u}$, 'who?'. The interrogative pronouns are $k\overline{o}$, 'who?' and $ky\overline{a}$, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 313-315]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is conjugated as under:

'I am', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	chữ, chhaữ, chhaữ	chhawã
2.	chai, chhaī	chhawā
3.	chha, cha	$chh {ar \imath}$

The past tense is masc. sing. chhayō or chhōyō, plur. chhaya or chhayā; fem sing. and plur. is chhaī, for all the three persons.

Finite verb. The infinitive or verbal noun closely follows the standard dialect. The strong form ends in $-n\sigma$, $(-n\sigma)$, and the weak form ends in -na (-na) and is usually but not always oblique.

The present participle has two forms. In one (as in standard Garhwālī) -do (obl. -da) is added to the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}rdo$ (obl. $m\bar{a}rda$), 'striking'. After the long vowel we have -ndo (obl. -nda). The other form is the Kumaunī present participle in -no (-no).

The past participle closely follows the standard dialect. There is one form in $-\bar{o}$, $-y\bar{o}$, $-y\bar{u}$ or $-ya\bar{u}$, as in $baith\bar{o}$, 'seated'; $m\bar{a}ry\bar{v}$, 'struck'; $bach\bar{v}y\bar{u}$, 'saved', and another corresponding to the standard form in \bar{e} or $y\bar{e}$, ending in $-\bar{e}$, $-y\bar{e}$, -a or -ya; thus, $m\bar{a}ra$, 'struck'; $ay\bar{e}$ or aya; 'came'.

The old present, usually employed as a present subjunctive or as an imperative, is the same as in the standard, as in $m\tilde{\imath}$ $m\tilde{\imath}r\tilde{\imath}$, 'I may beat'.

The present tense has two forms. The first is made by conjugating the present participle with the present tense of the verb substantive, as in Hindī. Any form of the present participle may be used. Thus, $m_{\tilde{i}}$ $bh\bar{u}kh$ -na $marn\bar{u}$ -chha \tilde{u} , 'I am dying of hunger'.

The second form is made by adding terminations to the present participle. Thus we have:

'I strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	mār $nar{u}$	mārnū
2.	mār n ī	mārnī
3.	mārn	mānī

The imperfect is formed, also as in Hindī, by suffixing the past tense of the verb substantive to the present participle.

The future tense is thus conjugated:

'I shall strike', etc.

3.	mārul	mārlā (mālā)
2.	māril	mārlyā (mālyā)
1.	mārŭlo (\sim l \bar{u}) \sim mārl \bar{u} (māl \bar{u})	marlā (mālā)
	Sing.	Plur.

The past tense is formed from both forms of the past participle as in the standard.

The passive voice is formed by conjugating the past participle with the verb substantive; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ māra chhaũ, 'I am beaten'. As in Kumaunī a passive voice is also formed by adding $-\bar{\imath}$ to the root, as in $mar\bar{\imath}y\bar{\imath}u$, 'dead'. [LSI pp. 315-319]

BADHĀNĪ

This dialect is spoken in the centre and west of Pargana Badhan of district Garhwal. Like Lohbya, it hardly differs from Rathi, and a very brief notice will suffice.

Nouns. Masculine nouns ending in $-\bar{o}$, in oblique sing. and nom. plur. end in $-\bar{a}$ and obl. plur. add nasalisation to the final vowel. Other masc. nouns remain unchanged in obl. sing. and nom. plur., but in obl. plur. add nasalisation or $-\bar{o}$. Feminine nouns ending in $-\bar{i}$ remain unchanged in obl. sing., optionally add $-\bar{e}$ in nom. plural and $-y\bar{o}$ in obl. plural.

The postpositions are:

Agentive, $-la \sim -l$, $-na \sim -n$, 'by'.

Instrumental, $-la \sim -l$, $-na \sim -n$, 'by'.

Dative (and accusative), -thaĩ, -mã, -sanĩ, -khanĩ, -khunĩ, -hanĩ, 'to'; -lai, -lē, 'for'.

Ablative, -tē, -baṭī, 'from'.

Genitive. -ko (-ka, -ki), 'of'.

Locative, -mã, -maī, -mang, 'in, on'; -par, 'on'; -madhē, 'from among'. [LSI p. 326]

PAHARI-5

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the first two personal pronouns are $m\tilde{\imath}$, $ma\tilde{\imath}$, '1'; $t\bar{u}$, 'thou', ham, 'we'; tum, 'you'. The demonstrative pronouns $y\bar{v}$, 'this'; and $w\bar{v}$, 'that', are also used as pronouns of third person. The reflexive pronoun is $\bar{a}ph\bar{u}$. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{v}$, and interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{v}$, 'who?' and $ky\bar{a}$, 'what?'. [LSI pp. 326-327]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is conjugated as under:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$ch ilde{u}$	chā, cha
2.	chā, cha	cha
3.	chā, cha	chā, cha

or we may have $chh\tilde{u}$, and so throughout.

The past is *chiyō* or *chayō*, plur. *chiyā* or *chayā*, fem. sing. and plur. *chī*. Or we may have *chyō*, *chhiyō*, *chhayō* or *chhyō*, and so throughout.

Finite verb. The infinitive ends in $-n\bar{o}$ $(-n\bar{u})$ or $-n\bar{o}$ (-nu) as usual with an oblique in $-n\bar{a}$ (-na) or $-n\bar{a}$ (na). Thus, hitno, obl. hitna or hitna, 'to go'.

The present participle as usual follows the infinitive.

The past participle, as usual, ends in $-\bar{o}$, or in $-\bar{e}$ (which may be dropped), or in $-y\tilde{u}$. Thus, hito, hite, hit or hit $y\tilde{u}$, 'gone'.

The present (I go, I am going) as usual has two forms.

First Form

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$hitnar{u}$ - $char{ ilde{u}}$	hiṭṇā-cha
2.	hiṭṇū-c h a	hiṭṇā-chū
3.	hiṭṇū-cha	hiṭṇā•cha

Second Form

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$hit n \overline{ ilde{u}}$	$hitn ilde{u}$
2.	hiţaṇ	hitna
3.	hiţaņ	hitnī

The future and past tenses are conjugated as under:

Future, 'I shall go', etc.		
	Sing.	Plur.
1.	hiṭlū, hiṭlo, hiṭnū	hiṭla
2.	hitlyo	hiţly a
3.	hiţlō	hitla
	Past, 'I went', etc.	
	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$hit ilde{n}$	hit \widetilde{u}
2.	hiţō	hiţa
3,	hito	hiţā [LSI pp. 327-328]

TEHRĪ GAŖHWĀLĪ OR GANGĀPARIYĀ

The state of Tehri Garhwal has to the west of district Garhwal, from which it is separated along the southern portion of its boundary by the river Ganges, Its language is a recognised dialect of Garhwali, known as the Tehri dialect, and also by the people of Garhwal and Almora, as "Gangāpāriyā" or the language the country beyond the Ganges.

Immediately to the west of the Tehri state lies the Jaunsar-Bawar tract of the district of Dehra Dun, the language of which is the Western Pahāṇī Jaunsārī. As might be expected, the Tehri dialect shows distinct traces of the latter form of speech, the most important of which is the frequent use of the word thayo instead of chhayō, to mean 'was'. [LSI p. 342]

The following are the principal points of divergence from the standard dialect.

Nouns. The principal postpositions are:

Agentive, -na.

Dative-Accusative, -kū, -ka, -sanī, 'for', -laī.

Instrumental, -na, -sē, -tē.

. Ablative, -mujē, -sē, -tē; 'from among', -mā-na.

Genitive, $-k\bar{o}$ ($-k\bar{a}$, $-k\bar{\imath}$).

Locative, $-m\tilde{a}$, $-m\tilde{u}$.

The locative postpositions are used after verbs of saying, like the standard $-m\bar{a}$.

Substantive and adjectives make their oblique forms as in the standard. The plural oblique terminations are -au and $-\bar{u}$, both of which are frequently nasalised. Thus, $b\bar{u}bau-k\bar{o}$, or $b\bar{u}ba\bar{u}-k\bar{o}$, 'of fathers'; $mans\bar{u}-k\bar{o}$ or $mans\bar{u}-k\bar{o}$, 'of men'. [LSI p. 342]

Adjectives. Adjectives follow the standard. [LSI p. 342]

Pronouns. These closely follow the standard. The usual oblique form of $t\bar{u}$ 'thou', is twai, as in twai-na (ag. sing.).

The reflexive pronoun is $\bar{a}ph\bar{u}$, 'self'. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{o}$, 'who?', and $ky\bar{a}$ or $ky\bar{a}j\bar{o}$, obl. $k\bar{e}$, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 342-343]

Verbs. The verbs substantive are:

Present, 'I am', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	chha \widetilde{u} , chha \widetilde{u}	chhayā
2.	chhaī	chhayāī
3.	chha	chhana

Chha may also be used for any person, as in $t\bar{u}$ as marna $ty\bar{a}r$ chha, 'thou art ready to die'.

The usual past is thayo, 'was'; plural thaya; fem. sing. and plur. thai. The standard chhayo, etc., is also frequently employed.

Finite verb. The infinitive closely follows the standard dialect. The strong form usually ends in $-\bar{u}$, as in $h\bar{v}n\bar{u}$, 'to be'; but $-\bar{v}$ also occurs in $g\bar{a}n\bar{v}$, 'to sing'. The weak form ends in -a, as in $h\bar{v}na$.

The present participle is formed as in the standard, either with $-d\bar{o}$ or $-n\bar{u}$ ($-n\bar{u}$). Thus, $m\bar{a}rdo$, charau $n\bar{u}$.

The past participle also follows the standard, ending in $-\bar{e}$, $-y\bar{o}$, and $-y\bar{u}$, with oblique forms in -e, $-y\bar{a}$ and $-y\bar{a}$.

Imperative follows the standard.

The present has two forms as in the standard. The first is a present definite, -mārdō chhaũ, 'I am striking'. The second is conjugated as follows:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	mārdaŭ, mārdū	mārdā
2.	mār dī	mārdaī
3.	mārda	mārdāna
-	•	

For the future tense we have in the masculine:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	mārlo	mārlā
2.	māralyō, mārilō	māralyā, mārlā
3.	mārlō	mārlā, mārily ā

The past tense closely follows the standard. Thus, wai na mārē, 'he struck'; wai-na ni chāyō, 'he did not wish'. For intransitive verbs we have, -rāyō, 'I remained'; chalyō, 'I went'; hōyē, 'he became'; lagena, 'they began'. [LSI pp. 342-344]

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS

English	Kumaunī (Standard)	Kumaunī (Khasparjiyā)
one	ēk	ēk (one or a), kai=(a)
two	dwī	dwī
three	tīn	tīn
four	chār	chār
hand	hāt	hāt
foot	khuț	khut
head	khwàro	khwar
a father	bāb	bab; (ag.) babai-l
of a father	bàba-ko	bab-k; (fem.) babaik ~babē-k; (masc. obl.) babā-k
to a father	bà b-ka ṇi	bab-kaṇi
two fathers	dwi bāb	dwī-bab
I am	maĩ chhữ	mī chhũ
thou art	tu chai, (fem.) chhē	tū chhai
he is	u chh	ū chh
we are	ham chhữ	ham ${\operatorname{chh}} {f ilde{f u}}$
you are	tum chhau	tum chhau
they are	ã chhan	t chhana, chhan
I was	maĩ chiyữ, chhyữ	mî chhiy
thou wast	tu chbiyē, (fem.) chhī	tū chhiyē
he was	u chhiyo, (fem.) chhi	น chbiy
we were	ham chhiyã, chhyã	ham chhiy

AND PHRASES IN CENTRAL PAHĀŖĪ

Gaṛhwālī (Standar	rd) Garhwālī (Rāṭhī)	Garhwalī (Tehrī)
ēk	ēk	ēk, bargat
dwi	$dw\bar{\imath}$	dwī, duī
tin	tīn	tin
chār	chār	chār
hāt	hāt	hath
khuṭō	khuṭō	khuṭō
sir	mūn	mund, kapāl
bābā	bābū	bubā
bābā-ko	bābū-ko	būbā-kō
bābā-kū	bābū khuņī	būbā-kū
dwī bābā	dwī bābū	dwī būbā
maĩ chhaữ	mī chhā, chhaũ	maĭ chhaũ
tū chhaī	tū chhai	tū chhai
wō chha	wō cha (sic.), chha	wō chha
ham c hhawāữ	ham chhawa	ham chhayā
tum chayāī	tum chhawā	tum chhayāī
wō chhau	wō chhī	wō chhana
maĩ chhayō	mi chhōyē, chhayō	maì chhayō chhō, thayō
tū chhayō	tū chhōyō, chhayō	tū chhayō. chhō, thayō
wō chhayō	wō chhōyō, chhayō	wō chhayō, chhō, thayō
ham chhayā	ham chhāyā, chhayā	ham chhayā, chhā,

thaya

English	Kumaunī (Standard)	Kumaunī (Khasparjiyā)
you were	tum chhiyā	tum chhiy
they were	$\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ chhiyà, (fem.) chhin	u chhiyā, chhiy
I shall be	maĩ hữlo	maĩ hữlo
I beat	maī màrũ-chhu	mī mārachh, mārchh
thou beatest	tu màrã-chhai (fem.) -chhe	tīī mārã-chhai, mārchhai
he beats	u màrã-chh, (fem.) -chhya	บ mārãchh, mārchh
we beat	ham màran 📆	ham mārnū
you beat	tum màrã- c hhā	tum mārã-chha, mār-chha
they beat	$ ilde{ ilde{u}}$ māranī ($fem.$) marar	nin u mārnī
I beat (past)	maĩ-le màrō	mī-l mār
thou beatest (past)	twī-le màto	twē-l mār
he beat (past)) wī-le màro	wī-1 mār
we beat (past) hama-le màro	hamō-l mār
you beat (past)	tuma-le màro	tumō-l mār
they beat (past)	un-le màro	unō-1 mār
I shall beat	maĩ màrũlo	mī mārūl

Garhwālī (Standard)	Gaṛhwālī (Rāṭhī)	Gaṛhwālī (Tehrī)
tum chhayā	tum chhāyā, chhayā	tum chhayā chhā, thayā
wō chhayā	wō chhāyā, chhayā	wō chhayā, chhā, thayā
maĭ hōlā	$m\bar{\imath}$ hun \bar{u}	maĩ hōlō
maĩ mārdū	mī mānū	mārdaũ
tū mārdi	tū mārni	mārdī
wō mārd	wō mārn	mārda
ham mārd ā wā	ham mārnū	mārdā
tūm mārdāwā	tum märni	mārdāī
wō mārdin	wō mānī	mārdāna
main mārē	mī-la (~mai-la) māra	maĩ-na mārē
tîn märē	tī-la (∼tai-la) māra	ti-na mārē
wain mārē	wa-la (~wai-la) māra	wai-na mārē
haman mārē	hamū-la māra	ham-na mārē
tuman mārē	tum ū -la māra	tum-na mārē
ũn mārē	wun u -la mära	ũ̃-na mārē
maī mārūlō, mārlō	mì märülö	maï mārlō [LSI pp. 353-371]



WESTERN PAHĀŖĪ

Western Pahārī is the Aryan language spoken in the Sub-Himalayas extending from the Jaunsar-Bawar tract of the district of Dehra Dun to Bhadrawah in the Northern Panjab. The tract thus includes Jaunsar-Bawar, most of the Simla Hill States with a small portion of the adjoining district of Ambala, Kulu, the states of Suket, Mandi, and Chamba, and the eastern end of Kashmir.

As in the case of Gaṛhwälī and Kumaunī, the speakers of Western Pahāṛī are of mixed origin. The earliest Aryan speaking inhabitants of whom we have any record were the Khaśas and (at a later stage) also the Gūjars, which were conquered and assimilated by Rājpūt immigrants from the south, who very probably were their distant blood-relations. Throughout these hills, the ruling classes claim to be Rājpūts. These Rājpūts intermarried with their Khaśa-Gujar kin, and gradually their own language became mixed with that of Khaśas—or rather obtained general currency with Khaśa corruptions.

The Western Pahārī may be looked upon as a form of Rājasthānī much mixed with the already mixed language of the Khaśa-Gūjars. The traces of old Khaś language become stronger as we go westwards. In Western Pahārī they are stronger still, and it is these traces that mainly authorise the separation of it from Central Pahārī as a distinct group of dialects.

[LSI pp. 373-374]

Groups of dialects. Western Pahārī consists of a great number of dialects, varying almost from hill to hill. They have been grouped under the following heads:

Jaunsārī and Sirmaurī. Jaunsārī is the language spoken in the Jaunsar-Bawar division of Dehra Dun. Sirmaurī is mainly spoken in the states of Sirmaur and Jubbal. It is closely connected with Jaunsārī, but north-east of the River Giri and in Jubbal it begins to approximate to Kiāthalī.

Baghāṭī and Kiūṭhalī. Baghāṭī and Kiūṭhalī are also closely connected. Baghāṭī is the dialect of the state of Baghat and the neighbourhood, in the south-west of the Simla Hill States, while Kiūṭhalī, in several varying dialects, is spoken in the central portion of the states, especially round Simla itself and in the state of Keonthal.

Kuļūī and Satlaj group. Kuļūī is spoken in Kulu, and the Satlaj group in a small set of dialects on each side of the river Satlaj between the Simla district and Kulu. It is a kind of linguistic bridge between Kiūthalī and Kuļūī.

Manděāļī. Manděāļī is the language of the states of Mandi and Suket, and represents southern Kuļūī merging into the Pañjābī of Kangra.

Chameali. Chameali (with four dialects) is mainly spoken in the Chamba state, and represents Kulūi merging into the Dogri of Jammu and into Bhadrawāhi.

Bhadrawāh group. The Bhadrawāh group consists of three dialects, spoken by a few people, but of considerable philological importance, which illustrate the final stage of Chamĕalī merging, through Bhadrawāhī, into Kāshmīrī.

From the above it will be gathered that we may take Kiūthalī-Baghātī and Kuļūī as the typical Western Pahātī dialects, and the following brief account of the main features of Western Pahātī is based on these two.

[LSI pp. 374-375]

Pronunciation. In Western Pahāṇī a is generally sounded like the \check{o} in 'hot'. There is a short \check{o} sounded like the \check{o} in 'met'. In some dialects (e. g. in the Simla Sirājī form of Kiāthalī) a final $\bar{\imath}$ has almost disappeared, \bar{e} being substituted for it. All these peculiarities also occur in Kāshmīrī. In Kiāthalī, and probably elsewhere, the diphthong ai is pronounced like a prolonged German \hat{u} , when originally followed by i. When not followed by i it sometimes becomes au, e.g. for baihn, 'a sister', Kiāthalī has its nominative $b\bar{u}hn$ (for $baihan\bar{\imath}$) while its agent case $bauhn\bar{e}$.

As regards consonants, Western Pahārī has a tendency to disaspiration. Thus the Hindī hōnā, 'to be', is generally represented by ōnū, or some such form. There is a similar tendency to drop an initial h in Kāshmīri, where we have for instance, athā, 'a hand', corresponding to the Hindōstānī hāth. The sonant aspirates gh, jh, dh, dh and bh show a tendency to drop the aspiration, but more usually the aspiration is transferred to a later stage of the syllable. Thus, bāī for bhāī, 'a brother', gōhrā, and ghōr, 'a horse', for ghōrā. The Piśācha hardening of sonant consonants occurs not uncommonly in Western Pahārī. Thus, in Kiūthalī for barchī, 'a spear' we have parchī. In Paugwāļī for zindā, 'alive', we have iintā.

A consonantal change typical of Western Pahārī is the development of two new consonants, ts, tsh, z or dz, developed from ch, chh and i, respectively. Thus, in Kiūthalī japnū, 'to speak' is pronounced dzopnū. The consonants l, r and r are often elided. Thus, (Chamēaļī) kata, not kartā, 'doing'; (Sirmaurī) donā, for daurnā, 'to run'.

The initial y and w are often elided, especially in borrowed words, as in $\bar{a}d$, for $y\bar{a}d$, 'memory'. In Western Pahāṇ, as in Rājasthānī, the Sanskrit \dot{s} is preserved, so that we have words like $d\bar{e}\dot{s}$, as against the Hindī $d\bar{e}s$. Like the Eastern dialect of the Piśācha Pashai, in the Gaddī dialect of Chamĕilī every \dot{s} becomes kh, e.g. in dakh, 'ten'. [LSI pp. 376-378]

Declension. The declension of Western Pahārī follows the general lines of most Indo-Aryan languages. There is in the singular, a nominative and an oblique form, and so also in the plural.

Tadbhava masculine nouns (excluding the few ending in -i and $-\bar{u}$) fall into classes-strong and weak. Strong tadbhava nouns end in $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{o}$ or $-\bar{u}$, as, for example, $g\bar{o}hr\bar{a}$, $g\bar{o}hru$, $g\bar{o}hr\bar{u}$, 'a horse', while weak tadbhava nouns end in a consonant, as for example, ghar or $g\bar{o}hr$, 'a house'.

Excepting in the case of border languages, such as Chaměaļi, Sirmaurī and Jaunsārī, the oblique form of all Western Pahārī nouns is the same in the singular and the plural. Thus, $g\bar{o}h\gamma\bar{o}$, nom. plur. $g\bar{o}h\gamma\bar{e}$; obl. sing. and plur. $g\bar{o}h\gamma\bar{e}$.

Western Pahārī exhibits another typical peculiarity in the declension of weak tadbhava masculine nouns. In most Indo-Aryan languages, these do not change in declension, except in oblique plural. The principal exception is Marāthī, where we have nom. sing. and plur. ghar; obl. sing. gharā; obl. plur. gharā. Western Pahārī follows Marāthī in having separate forms for such weak tadbhavas, except that, as explained above, the oblique forms of the plural are the same as those for the singular. As in Marāthī the oblique form is made by adding a vowel, which varies from dialect to dialect.

Besides the oblique form, all Western Pahārī languages have an organic locative and agent (singular and plural) formed by adding $-\bar{e}$, as in $babb\bar{e}$, 'by the father', $g\bar{o}hr\bar{e}$, 'in the house'. Other case relations are formed with the aid of postpositions.

[LSI pp. 378-380]

Pronouns. The first person nominative fluctuates between forms such as \tilde{a} , $a\tilde{u}$ and $ha\tilde{u}$ with minor variations. The oblique form singular of this pronoun is $m\tilde{a}$, $m\tilde{u}$, or $m\tilde{v}$, with minor variations. The genitive singulars are $m\tilde{e}r\tilde{v}$ and $t\tilde{e}r\tilde{v}$ or similar forms. Quite irregular is the use of cerebral consonants in Churāhī (Chamĕāļī) $mind\bar{a}$, 'my'; $tind\bar{a}$, thy; and the Paṅgwāļī (Chamĕāļī) $m\bar{a}n$ 'my', $t\bar{a}n$, 'thy'. In the plural, the southern dialects have forms based on ham, tum; but the northern dialects follow the Piśacha dialects and Pañjābī in having forms like the Kuļūī $\bar{a}ss\bar{e}$, $tuss\bar{e}$.

The demonstrative pronouns, also used as pronouns of the third person, fall into the usual groups. We may take the Kiūthalī set, ēh, 'this'; ō, 'that'; sē, 'that', as typical. When used as substantives, these have, in the oblique cases of the singular, three genders; a masculine animate (e.g. tēs); a feminine animate (e.g. tēssau); and an inanimate (com. gen. as in tētth). When used as adjectives, only the masculine forms are used. The inanimate forms have been noted only in the Simla Hill districts. These three genders are employed exactly as in the Piśacha languages. [LSI pp. 380-381]

Conjugation. The verb substantive has many forms for the present. Practically all the dialects use some form of the root $h\bar{p}$.

as in Jaunsārī ō, hō; Kiūthalī, ō; Kuļūī, hē; Maṇḍĕaļī, hā; Chamĕaļī, hai, all meaning 'he is'. Some of these, such as the Maṇḍĕaļī, ha, are participial in formation not changing for person, but changing for gender and number, as in hī, 'she is'; hē, 'they are'.

Another group is confined to the southern dialects and Kulūi. Its basis is the root as. In some dialects (e.g. Kiūthali) it is regularly conjugated for number and person. In others (e.g. Kulūi), it only changes for gender. In others again (e.g. Jaunsāri), it is immutable for all persons of both numbers and both genders.

A third form of the present tense is $ath\bar{\imath}$ used (with some minor variations of form) in the southern dialects and Ku $|\bar{u}\bar{\imath}$.

The as group of the verb substantive reappears in nearly all the Pisacha languages, e.g. in Veron so, eso, 'he is'. With āthī, we may compare the Pisācha Gārwī and Maiyā, thū, 'he is'.

For the past tense of the verb substantive the usual form is thiyō, thyō or thō, treated like the Hindī thā. A variant form is Kuļūī tī, which does not change for gender, number or person.

The active verb calls for few remarks. It follows the lines of Rājasthānī and of the other Pahāṛī dialects. [LSI pp. 381-382]

JAUNSÁRÍ

Jaunsārī is spoken in the Jaunsar-Bawar Pargana of the Dehra Dun district. This consists of a hill tract with an area of something under 350 square miles, being a longish irregular parallelogram wedged in between Garhwal and the Panjab state of Sirmaur.

Jaunsārī is accordingly a mixed language, agreeing mostly with Sirmaurī but much affected by the Hindī spoken to its south in the rest of Dehra Dun. It also shows points of contact with Garhwālī lying immediately to its east. In many points it agrees so closely with Western Hindī that it might almost be classed as a very irregular dialect of that language, instead of being classed as a form of Western Pahārī.

[LSI p. 383]

The following is the grammatical sketch of the language, based on very insufficient materials:

Pronunciation. When there is a long vowel in the preceding syllable, a final a is often pronounced. Thus, $du\bar{\imath}ja$, 'another'; $nitl\bar{\imath}\delta a$, 'a bath'. The vowel a is pronounced something like the o in 'hot'; \bar{a} and $\bar{\imath}$ are interchangeable when final. This is especially common in the case of nouns, adjectives, and participles which in Hindī, end in $-\bar{a}$, but in Gaṛhwālī and Kumaunī in $-\bar{\imath}$. As in Central Pahāṛī a short $\check{\imath}$, sounded like e in 'met', often occurs as a substitute, for i, as in $t\check{\imath}$ s- $k\bar{\imath}$, 'of him', equivalent to the Hindī $tis-k\bar{\imath}$.

The consonant chh is interchangeable with s, as in chhasa or sasa, 'a hare'. We sometimes find aspiration omitted, as in bi or $bh\bar{\imath}$, 'also'; $gh\bar{o}r$ or $g\bar{o}r$, 'a house'; tha or ta, 'was'. L when medial or final is very often dropped. To fill up the hiatus thus caused, a w is sometimes inserted in place of the l. Thus, $b\bar{a}dal$ or $b\bar{a}d\bar{o}$, 'a cloud'; $p\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ or $p\bar{a}w\bar{a}$, 'frost'. [LSI pp. 385-386]

Nouns. There are two numbers, singular and plural.

Tadbhava nouns which end in $-\bar{o}$ or $-\bar{a}$, form the nominative plural by changing \bar{a} or \bar{o} to \bar{e} . Thus, $gh\bar{o}_{I}\bar{a}$ or $gh\bar{o}_{I}\bar{o}$, 'a horse'; plur. $gh\bar{o}_{I}\bar{e}$, 'horses'. In the case of other masculine nouns, the nominative plural is the same as the nominative singular. The feminine nouns ending in $-\bar{\imath}$ form the nominative plural by changing i to $i\bar{a}$ or $iy\bar{a}$, the nasal being frequently dropped, and those ending in -u change the \bar{u} to $u\bar{a}$. Thus, $b\bar{e}_{I}\bar{\imath}$, 'a daughter', plur. $be_{I}\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$ or $be_{I}\bar{\imath}\bar{a}\bar{a}$; $a\bar{s}\bar{u}$, 'a tear', plur. $a\bar{s}u\bar{a}$. Most feminine nouns ending in consonants seem to form their plurals by adding $-\bar{\imath}$.

Case. As in other Indo-Aryan languages, cases are generally indicated by postpositions. Certain nouns are put in an oblique form before these are added. The oblique form, singular or plural, can be employed above to indicate any case, as in ghoro ādia, while coming to the house'.

The postpositions are:

Agent, -ē.

Accusative, -, or else -kh.

Instrumental, -\vec{e}, -l\vec{e}i.

Dative, -kh.

Ablative, $-\tilde{i}$ 'from', $-t\bar{z} \sim -t\bar{i}$ 'from' $-\bar{a}uri$ 'from', $-m\bar{u}jh\bar{i}$ 'from among', $-bh\bar{e}r\bar{i}$ 'from near'.

Genitive, $-ko \sim -ka$.

Locative, $-m\tilde{u}jh$ 'in', $-p\tilde{u}da$ 'in' $-d\tilde{a}$ 'on', -chh 'on, upon', $-bh\bar{e}r$ 'near' $-dh\bar{a}iv\bar{a}$ 'near'. [LSI pp. 386-389]

Adjectives. Except tadbhava adjectives in $-\bar{a}$ or $-\bar{o}$, all adjectives are immutable. Tadbhava adjectives in $-\bar{a}$ or $-\bar{o}$ change the termination to $-\bar{\imath}$ when agreeing with feminine nouns. When agreeing with a masculine noun in the plural or in any case of the singular except the nominative the \bar{a} or \bar{o} is changed to \bar{e} ; thus, bhölō admī, 'a good man', bhölē ādmī, 'good men'; bhölī bēṭī-mānukh, 'a good woman'; bhölī bēṭī-mānukh, 'a good woman'; bhölī bēṭī-mānukh, 'good women'.

Comparison is made, as usual, by putting the thing with which comparison is made in the ablative case. [LSI p. 389]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $ha\tilde{u}$, $a\tilde{u}$, $m\tilde{e}$, 'I'; am, $am\tilde{e}$, ham, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; tum, $t\tilde{u}\tilde{e}$, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns are also employed as pronouns of the third person. In the singular they have different forms for the masculine and the feminine. The nominative singular forms are; $\check{e}\bar{u}$, $\check{e}j\bar{o}$ (- \bar{a}), (masc.) $\check{e}\bar{u}$, $\check{e}j\bar{i}$ (fem.), 'this'; $s\bar{o}$, $s\check{o}j\bar{o}$ (\bar{a}), (masc.), $s\bar{o}$, $s\check{o}j\bar{i}$ (fem.) 'that'. The oblique forms singular and plural, have each a neuter form used only when referring to inanimate nouns.

The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$ or $j\bar{o}j\bar{o}$ (-a), 'who, which, that'. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{u}na$, 'who?' and (neuter) ka, 'what?'. [LSI pp. 390-393]

PAHARI-7

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. There are three forms of the present tense of this verb. The first is conjugated as follows:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$\widetilde{m{u}},\ \widetilde{m{o}}$	ŏ, ã
2.	au. ŏ, ̃ẽ	au, ŏ
3.	ō, $\widetilde{\breve{o}}$	au, o

Sometimes h is also prefixed to these forms; thus, $h\tilde{a}$, 'I am'; $h\bar{o}$, 'he is'. The second form is $\check{o}s\check{o}$ or $as\check{o}$, and is used without change for all persons and both numbers. The third form is $\bar{a}th\bar{i}$ or $\bar{a}th\tilde{i}$, also used as $\bar{a}t\bar{i}$. This form occurs in most Western Pahārī dialects, and is only used with a negative, not changing for number or person. Thus, $\bar{a}th\tilde{i}$ - $n\tilde{a}$, 'I am not, thou art not', and so on. Sometimes the two are combined as in $n\bar{a}th\bar{i}$.

The past tense is $th\bar{o}$ ($th\bar{a}$) fem. $th\bar{i}$; plur. masc. $th\bar{e}$, fem. $th\bar{i}$. It is used exactly like the Hindī $th\bar{a}$, 'was'. In these forms instead of th, t is also used.

Active verb. The infinitive or verbal noun is formed by adding $-n\tilde{o}$ $(-n\tilde{o})$ to the root. Thus, $kh\bar{a}$ - $n\tilde{o}$, 'to eat, the act of eating'.

The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{o}$ ($-d\bar{a}$) to the root. Thus, $kard\bar{o}$ ($kard\bar{a}$) 'doing'. When the root ends in a vowel, the termination is $-nd\bar{o}$ ($-nd\bar{a}$).

The past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{o}$ (or $-\bar{a}$) to the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\bar{o}$ (or $m\bar{e}r\bar{a}$), 'struck'.

The present is conjugated as under:

'I strike, I am striking', etc.

,	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$mar ilde{u} \sim mar ilde{v}$	mār $\tilde{u}\sim$ mār $\tilde{\delta}$
2.	mārē, mārō, mārī	mārō ~ mārō
3.	marõ	mārõ

It will be observed that $m dr \tilde{o}$ can be used for any person of either number.

The imperative second person singular is the same as the root. Thus, $d\bar{e}$, 'give thou'. The second person plural adds $-\bar{e}$. Thus, $d\bar{e}\bar{e}$, 'give ye'; $n\bar{e}$ tho, 'go ye'.

The future tense is thus conjugated, in the masculine:

'I shall strike', etc.

Sing.

Plur.

1. mārmā (-mō)

marmē, mardē

2. & 3. marda (-dō)

marde

The feminine form is $m\bar{a}rd\bar{\imath}$, which remains the same in all the numbers and persons. It will be observed that, except the 1st person masculine, all these forms are simply the present participle.

The past tense indicative is formed nearly as in Hindī, and like all other tenses formed from the past participle, is constructed almost exactly as in that language, i.e. in the case of transitive verbs, the subject is put in the agent case, and the verb agrees in gender and number with the object. The construction differs from Hindī and follows Rājasthānī and Gujarātī, and also Gaṛhwālī and Kumaunī in this, that the verb agrees with the object, even when the latter is in the dative case. Intransitive verbs are, on the other hand, constructed actively. The past tense is simply the past participle, which agrees with the subject (or, in the case of transitive verbs, with the object) in gender and number.

Passive voice. As in Kumauni and Rājasthāni, a passive is formed by adding -i to the root of the verb. Thus, $h\bar{a}rchn\bar{\delta}$, to lose', $h\bar{a}rchn\bar{\delta}$, 'to be lost'.

Causal verbs are formed, as in Hindī, by adding $-\bar{a}$, to the root, as in $pak\bar{a}n\bar{o}$, 'to cook'. Sometimes, as usual \bar{o} is substituted for \bar{a} , as in $sun\bar{o}nd\bar{a}$ lagā, 'he began to cause to hear'.

[LSI pp. 393-400]

SIRMAURI

Sirmaurl is spoken in the state of Sirmur, and also in some hill tracts of Ambala, bordering on Sirmur, and over most of the state of Jubbal.

Dialects. The river Giri runs through the state of Sirmur from the north-west to the south-east and divides the state into nearly equal portions. The dialect of the Cis-Giri country is called simply Girīpārī. The dialect spoken in a portion of Jubbal state lying immediately to the north-east of Sirmur, is also a form of Girīpārī locally known as Biśśau. These two dialects are much alike. The main difference is that Dhārthī, as might be expected from its vicinity to the Western Hindī of Ambala, is not so distinctly Pahāṣī as Girīpārī. [LSI pp. 456-457]

SIRMĀURĪ DHĀRTHĪ

The materials for the illustration of this dialect are very insufficient, and the following remarks must be taken with some reserve.

Pronunciation. The vowel scale is very uncertain. \tilde{O} is pronounced like o in 'hot', and \tilde{e} sounded like the e in 'met'. Vowels \bar{u} and \bar{v} and \bar{v} and \bar{e} are freely interchangeable. Thus, we have both $s\bar{s}$ and $s\bar{e}$, 'he', and $guw\bar{a}$ and $g\bar{v}w\bar{a}$, 'he went'.

As regards consonants, a marked peculiarity is the frequent dropping of an initial h, as in $h\tilde{a}$ or \tilde{a} , 'I'; ath, 'a hand'; iran, 'a deer'. Similarly the aspiration of sonant consonants is usually dropped, as in $b\tilde{a}d$ (not $b\tilde{a}dh$), 'bind'; $gh\tilde{o}r$ or $g\tilde{o}r$, 'a house'. There is a tendency to soften hard consonants, as in the word $d\tilde{a}d$ (for $d\tilde{a}t$), 'a tooth'. [LSI p. 460]

Nouns. In Sirmauri tadbhava nouns usually end in -ā, -ō being rarely met with. These, as in Hindi, form their oblique singulars and nominative plurals in ē. Thus, gaurā, 'a horse'; obl. sing. and nom. plur. gaurē. For the oblique plural, the usual form ends in -ō, as in gaurō, kutō, etc.

Feminine nouns appear generally to remain unchanged both in the singular and in the plural; but sometimes take $-\bar{v}$ as in $n\bar{a}ls\bar{v}$ $ditt\bar{i}$, 'a complaint was given.'

Case. The case of the agent and instrumental always ends in -ē, both in the singular and in the plural. Thus, kānchhē bēṭē bolo, 'the younger son said'. Bāwē dēkhā, 'the father saw him'.

Other case relations are, as usual, defined by postpositions, the most usual of which are:

Instrumental : $-\bar{e} \sim -da$

Dative : -khē ~ -gē

Ablative : -da

Genitive : -ra

Locative : -da, 'in'; -mō, 'in'; -pāde, 'on'.

Of the above $-r\bar{a}$ sometimes appears as $-r\bar{o}$ and $-d\bar{a}$ as $-d\bar{o}$. Moreover these two postpositions are adjectival, and agree, like adjectives, with the governing word, in the same manner as the Hindī $-k\bar{a}$, $-k\bar{e}$, $-k\bar{i}$. The accusative, is usually the same as the nominative, but, as in Hindī, when definiteness is required, it takes the form of dative. [LSI pp. 460-462]

Adjectives. Adjectives are declined exactly as in Hindi. Comparison is also effected as in Hindi, the thing with which comparison is made being put in the ablative. [LSI p. 462]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $h\tilde{a}$, \tilde{a} , $h\tilde{b}$, or $\tilde{a}w$, 'I'; $h\bar{a}m$, $h\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, $hom\bar{e}$, 'we'; $t\bar{u}$, 'thou'; tum, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns, ai, 'this, and $s\bar{e}$ 'that' are also employed as pronouns of the 3rd person. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{e}$. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{u}n$, 'who', and $k\bar{a}$, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 463-464]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is declined as follows:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	asu, ŏsū	asa, ŏsō
2.	asē, ösē	asa, ösö
3.	asa, ŏsō, ŏsõ	asa, ŏsō

When used as an auxiliary, we sometimes find sa or $s\bar{o}$ used instead of $asa\ (\tilde{o}s\bar{o})$. The past is $thiv\bar{a}$, or $th\bar{a}$, 'was', plur. $thiv\bar{e}$ or $th\bar{e}$; fem. (both numbers) $th\bar{i}$. Like Hindi it does not change for person.

Active verb. The infinitive or verbal noun is formed by adding $-n\bar{a}$ (- $n\bar{a}$) to the root. Thus, $t\bar{t}pn\bar{a}$, 'to beat, the act of beating'.

The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{a}$ to the root as in tipda, 'beating'. If the root ends in a vowel, the n is inserted, as in $\bar{o}nda$, 'being'.

The past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{a}$ to the root, as in $tip\bar{a}$, 'beaten', $\bar{c}\bar{a}$, 'become'.

The second person singular of the imperative is the same as the root, and the plural adds $-\bar{o}$, or after $-\bar{a}$, -w.

The old present, used chiefly as a present subjunctive, is thus conjugated:

'I may strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	țipu țīpū	ţīpū, ţīpā
2.	ţipē	ţīpŏ
3.	$tip,\ tar{\imath}preve{\delta},\ tar{\imath}par{\delta}$	ţīpŏ, ţīpõ

The future is conjugated as under:

'I shall strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	ţīpūē	ţīpõgē
2.	ţīplā	ţīplē
3.	ţīpla	ţīplē

The definite present is formed by suffixing the present tense of the verb substantive to the old present; thus, $t\bar{\imath}p\bar{\delta}$ sa, 'he is striking'. $Ra\tilde{\imath}$ sa, 'he dwells'.

The past, perfect and pluperfect are formed from past participle, exactly as in Hindī. [LSI pp. 464-466]

SIRMAURĪ GIRĪPĀRĪ

The vocabulary of Girīpāri Sirmaurī contains many words which are relics of the old Khaśa language. Many of them give evidence of phonetic changes which would lead us to class the Khaśa languages with the Piśācha languages.

Pronunciation. The pronunciation of vowels is the same as that of Sirmauri Dhārṭhī.

Nouns. As in Dhārṭhī, masculine tadbhava nouns usually end in $-\bar{a}$, though a termination -o also occurs. These nouns form their oblique cases singular and the nominative plural in $-\bar{e}$, as chhōṭē-khē, 'to the son', chhōṭē, 'sons'. The oblique plural of these nouns is the same as the singular.

Other masculine nouns form the agent and locative cases by adding $-\bar{e}$. For other cases of the singular, the oblique form is made by adding $-a(-\tilde{o})$ to the noun. The nominative and oblique plurals are the same as the nominative and oblique singulars, respectively.

Feminine nouns appear to remain unchanged throughout the singular and plural, except that they take -ē in the singular agent and locative.

Case relations (excluding those of the agent and locative) are made with the aid of postpositions. The following are the more important:

Instrumental: This case is usually treated like the agent, and takes -ē. Sometimes it has the postposition -rē.

Accusative-dative: -khē, -ēkh, -gē, 'to or for'; -rī (-rē) -tāī,

for'.

Ablative:

-dō (~ -dū), 'from'.

Genitive:

-ra.

Locative:

-da, -mē, -mūjē, 'in'; -gēś, -gēśī, -gāśī, 'on'. [ISI pp. 479-481]

Adjectives. The rules are as in Hindi.

[LSI p. 481]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are hawe, aw, \tilde{a} , $m\tilde{o}$, \tilde{I} ; hame, ame. hawe, we'; $t\tilde{u}$, $t\tilde{u}$, thou'; $t\tilde{u}\tilde{e}$, you'.

The demonstrative pronouns \bar{e} , 'this', and $s\bar{e}$, or $s\bar{e}-j\bar{e}$, 'that', are also employed as pronouns of the third person. The reflexive pronoun is $\bar{a}p\bar{u}$ or $\bar{a}p\bar{o}$. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$, and the interrogative pronouns are $kun\bar{e}$, 'who?' and ka, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 481-483]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is conjugated as under:

'I am', etc.

Sing. Plur.

1. $s\tilde{u} \sim s\tilde{a}$, $s\tilde{o}$, $as(\tilde{o}s)$, $as\tilde{o}(\tilde{o}s\tilde{o})$ sa, $s\tilde{o}$, $as(\tilde{o}s)$, $as\tilde{o}(\tilde{o}s\tilde{o})$ 2. sa, $s\tilde{o}$, $as(\tilde{o}s)$, $as\tilde{o}(\tilde{o}s\tilde{o})$ sa, $s\tilde{o}$, $as(\tilde{o}s)$, $as\tilde{o}(\tilde{o}s\tilde{o})$ 3. sa, $s\tilde{o}$, $as(\tilde{o}s)$, $as\tilde{o}(\tilde{o}s\tilde{o})$ sa, $s\tilde{o}$, $as(\tilde{o}s)$, $as\tilde{o}(\tilde{o}s\tilde{o})$

It will be observed that sa ($\sim s\bar{o}$), as ($\sim \bar{o}s$), $\sim as\bar{o}$ ($\sim \bar{o}s\bar{o}$) can be used for any person of either number, and are the only forms for every person except the first person singular.

Active verb. The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{a}$ ($\sim -d\bar{o}$) to the root, as in $p\bar{u}_{1}d\bar{a}$, 'bearing'. If the root ends in a vowel, an n is inserted, as in $d\bar{e}nd\bar{a}$, 'giving'.

The past participle is formed by adding -a ($\sim -\bar{o}$) to the root, as in $p\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$, 'beaten'. The second person singular of the imperative is the same as the root, and the plural adds $-\bar{o}$. Thus, $d\bar{e}$, 'give thou me'; $d\bar{e}\bar{o}$, 'give ye'.

The old present, used chiefly as a present subjunctive, is thus conjugated:

'I may strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	pīţã, pīţē	pīţã, pīţē
2.	pīţē	pīţē, pīţ
3.	pīţ, pīţē, pīţō	pīţē, pīţ

It will be observed that $p\bar{\imath}t\bar{e}$ may be used for any person of either number.

The future is conjugated as follows:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	pīţūla, pīţūē, ~ pīţwa	piț ule
2.	pīțēla, pīţla	pițele, pițle
3,	pīţla	pițle

The present is formed by suffixing the present tense of the verb substantive to the old present. Thus, $pitu s\tilde{u}$ ($\sim sa$), 'I strike', and so on.

PAHARI-8

The past tense is formed from the past participle, exactly as in Hindi.

The passive is formed with janā, as in Hindī. Causal verbs are also made as in Hindī. [LSI pp. 483-486]

BAGHĀŢĪ

The Baghātī form of the Simla Hill dialects centres round the state of of Baghat. It is spoken in the Pinjaur and Dharampur Thānās of the state of Patiala, immediately to the south and south-east of Baghat, in the states of Bija and Kuthar to its east, and in the Bharauli Pargana of the Simla district to its north. To its east the dialect is the Sirmaurī of the state of Sirmaur, to its north the Kiūthalī of the Śrīnagar Thānā of Patiala, to its west the Haṇdūrī of Mailog, and to its south the Western Hindī of Ambala.

Baghāṭī is closely allied to Sirmaurī. Its principal point of difference is the universal use of the vowel \bar{a} as the termination of the oblique form of nouns ending in consonants and the use of $-d\bar{e}$ instead of $-d\bar{e}$ or $-d\bar{a}$ as the postposition of the ablative.

[LSI p. 495]

The following is the brief grammatical sketch of the dialect:

Pronunciation: The pronunciation of Baghātī does not differ from that of Sirmaurī and other cognate languages. As a special point, not hitherto noted, we may draw attention to the occasional pronunciation of ch as ts and of j as z as in tsarnā, 'to graze (cattle)'; tsāzārā, 'good, beautiful'. This is a common incident in the pronunciation of Piśācha languages of North-West Frontier, including Kāshmīrī. [LSI pp. 495-496]

Nouns: In the case of all nouns the termination of the agent and of the locative case is always -ē.

Tadbhava nouns in -a change the -a to -ē in all cases both of the singular and plural, except the nominative and vocative singular. In the vocative that -a is changed to -ēa in the

singular, and to $-\epsilon \bar{a}$ in the plural; thus, $g\bar{o}hr\epsilon\bar{a}$, 'O horse!' $g\bar{o}hr\epsilon\bar{o}$, 'O horse!' All masculine nouns ending in consonants, have the nominative plural the same as the nominative singular. In the vocative singular they add $-\bar{a}$, and in the vocative plural $-\bar{o}$. The declension of feminine nouns closely follows that of masculine except that the vocative singular always ends in $-\bar{e}$; thus, baihn, 'a sister; $baihn\bar{a}$, 'sisters'.

In the Baghati nouns, except in the nominative and vocative cases, there is no difference between the singular and the plural.

Other case relations are indicated by terminations, the commonest of which are:

Accusative, -khē.

Instrumental, -sāī, with.

Dative, $-kh\bar{e}$ 'to \sim for'; $-k\bar{a}\bar{e} \sim -k\bar{a}\bar{e}-kh\bar{e}$, 'to, towards', $-r\bar{i}$ $-t\bar{a}i$, 'for'.

Ablative, $-d\bar{e}$, 'from', $-m\bar{e}-d\bar{e}$, $-m\tilde{e}-d\bar{e}$, 'from in, from among'.

Genitive, -ra.

Locative, $-m\bar{e}$, $-m\tilde{e}$, $-man\ jh\bar{e}$, 'in'; $-d\bar{e}$, 'in, on'; $-p\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, 'on'; $-p\bar{a}\bar{e}$ 'on'.

The genitive postposition is, of course, an adjective. Fem. $-r\bar{\imath}$; masc. sing. obl. and plural, $-r\bar{\imath}$. [LSI pp. 496-498]

Adjectives: All adjectives except those ending in -a are indeclinable. Those ending in -a exactly follow the rules of Hindī. Comparison is formed, as in Hindī. [LSI p. 498]

Pronouns: The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; au, 'I'; $ham\tilde{e}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; $tum\tilde{e}$, 'you'. The demonstrative pronouns eh, 'this' and $s\tilde{e}$, 'that' are also used as pronouns of the third person. In the oblique case they have feminine forms, thus $t\tilde{e}s-r\tilde{a}$, 'of him'; $t\tilde{a}\tilde{a}-r\tilde{a}$, 'of her',

The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$. The interrogative pronouns are kun, 'who?' and kah 'what?'. The indefinite pronouns are $k\bar{o}\bar{i}$, 'anyone, someone'; kuchh, 'anything, something'.

[LSI pp. 498-500]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive: The present tense of the verb substantive is conjugated as follows:

'I am', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	ŏssū	อัรรน
2.	ðssö	ŏssō
3.	ðssö	ðssö

The past is $tha \sim thiya$, fem. $th\bar{\imath}$; plur. $th\bar{e} \sim thiy\bar{e}$, fem. $th\bar{\imath}$. It does not change for person, being treated exactly as in Hindī. There is a negative verb substantive $n\bar{\imath}hai$, 'I am not', not changing for person or number.

Corresponding to the Hindi hona, we have ona, 'to become, to be'. Its past participle is oa, and its present is:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	ōū	δū
2.	ō	Ø
3.	ō	ō

Active verb: The infinitive or verbal noun, is formed by adding -nā (-nā) to the root; thus, tīpnā, 'to strike'; bannā, 'to become'.

The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{a}$ to the root as in $t\bar{\imath}pda$, 'striking'. If the root ends in a vowel, an n is inserted, as in $\bar{v}nd\bar{a}$, 'being'.

The past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{a} \sim -y\bar{a}$ to the root. Thus, $t\bar{i}p\bar{a} \sim t\bar{i}py\bar{a}$, 'struck'.

The imperative singular is the same in form as the root. Thus, $t\bar{\imath}p$, 'strike thou'. Its plural takes $\bar{\sigma}$. Thus, $t\bar{\imath}p\bar{\sigma}$, 'strike ye'.

The present indicative, also used as a present subjunctive, is thus conjugated:

'I strike, I may strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	ţīpū	ţīpū
2.	ţĭpō	ţīpō
3.	ţīpō	ţīpō

The future is conjugated as follows:

'I shall strike', etc.

Sing.			Plur.	
7	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	ţīpūē	ţīpūē	ţīpūē, ţīpmē	ţīpmĩ
2.	ṭīplā	ţīplī	ţīplē	ţīplī
3.	tīpla	ţīplī	ţīplē	ţīplī

The past is formed exactly as in Hindi, the past participle being used for all persons, with appropriate changes of gender and number. In the case of transitive verbs the construction is passive, with the subject of the agent case.

Causals are formed as in Hindi. Thus, sunana, 'to cause to hear'. [LSI pp. 501-505]

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES

English	Jaunsārī	Sirmaurī (Dhārṭhī)
one	ēk, ēkō	ēk
two	dui	$d\overline{\mathbf{u}}$
three	tin	tīn
four	chār	chār
hand	hāth, ātha	āth
foot	gōdō, bãgnī, lāt	lat
head	mũḍ	mũd
a father	bābā	ēk bāp
of a father	bābā-kā	ēkī bāpū-ra
to a father	bāb ā-k h	ēkī bāpū-rā
two fathers	dui bābā	dū bāpū
I am	hāŭ ũ, õ	ã asū (ösū)
thou art	tū ę̃	tū asē
he is	sō au, ō hō	sē asa
we are	$ \widetilde{\tilde{g}}, \widetilde{\tilde{g}} $	hām asa
you are	tum au, ō	tum asa
they are	sŏjē au, ō	sē asa
I was	hāũ thã	ã thiya
thou wast	tu tha	tu thiya
he was	sō thā	sē thiyā
we were	ām thē	hām thīyē

LIST OF SELECT WORDS

IN JAUNSĀRĪ, SIRMAURĪ, BAGHĀŢĪ

Sirmaurī (Girīpārī and Biśśau)	Baghāṭī
ēk	ēk
du	dō
chōn	tīn
chār	chār
hāth	hāth
gāgņā	lāt
mād	$m\widetilde{u}d$
bābā	bāō
bāb ē -rā	bāō-rā
bābē-rī tāī	bāō-dē
dū bābē	dō bāō
ãw s₀, ∼ sa	aũ ŏssū
tī sa	tū õssū
sē sa	sē ŏssō
āmē sa	hamē össū
tuē̃ sa	tumę̃-ðssū
sē sa	sē õssō
ãw tha	aữ thã
$t\overline{\tilde{u}}\ th\bar{a}$	tū thā
sē thā	sē thā
āmē thē	hāmē thē

English	Jaunsārī	Sirmauri (Dhārthi)
you were	tum the	tum thiyē
they were	sõjē thē	sē thiyē
I shall be	hāŭ hōmā	ã ōw ẽ
I beat	hāũ mā r ñ	ã țip u
thou beatest	tū mārē	țu țīpē
he beats	sō mārō	sē tīp ; tīpõ
we beat	ām mārū	hām ţīpū
you beat	tum mārō	tum tip ; tipo
they beat	sõjē mārõ	sē tīp ; tīpõ
I beat (past)	mē mārā	m ë țīpa
thou beatest (past)	t e mārā	tē țipa
he beat (past)	tiņē mārā	tēņiyē ţīpā
we beat (past)	ām ē mārā	hāmē ţīpā
you beat (past)	tuõ māra	tumē ţīpā
they beat (past)	tī wē mārā	tinē tīpā
I shall beat	hā ũ mārmā	ã țlpū€

Sirmaurī (Girīpārī and Biśśau)	Baghaṭī
tū õ thē	tume the
sē thē	sē thē
ōulā	aữ ōwē
ãw piţū sữ, ∼ sa	aũ țīpū
tữ pitē sa	t u ţipō
sē pit sa, pitē sa	sē ţīpō
āmē pītū sa, pītē sa	hamē ţīpū
tue pit sa, pite sa	tūmē tipo
sē pit sa, pitē sa	se țîpō
maŭ (~ mã, maĭ) pīţā	moë tipa ~ (tipya)
tã piţā	tōē ţīpā (ţīpyā)
těnē pīṭā	těnně tipā (tipyā)
āmē pīţā	hamē ţīpā (ţīpyā)
tue pița	tumē țipa (țipya)
těni ẽ pitā	tinnē ţīpā (ţīpyā)
ãw piţūla	aữ țipūē
	[LSI [*] pp. 529-547]

• ,

THE KIŪTHALĪ GROUP

The Simla Hill states are bounded on the north by the river Satlaj. Speaking roughly, the southern half of the whole tract is occupied by Sirmur, Baghat and the adjoining parts of Patiala. The northern half has in its centre the state of Keonthal and the Srīnagar thānā of Patiala. Here the language is Kiūthalī, reaching from Baghat and Sirmur right upto the state of Bhajjī lying along the south bank of the Satlaj.

West and east of this central Kinthalī tract other Western Pahārī dialects are spoken, all of which are closely connected, and which may conveniently be classed together as the Kinthalī group. On the west, in the state of Nalagarh is Handurī, and to the east, in order going eastwards, spoken in Eastern Keonthal, Kotkhai, and several adjoining and less important states, are Simla Sirājī, Barārī, Kīrnī, and Śŏrāchŏlī. Kōchī is spoken in the western part of the state of Bashahr, immediately to the north and north-east of Barārī and Śŏrāchŏlī.

Details regarding these dialects will be found in the following pages. All these dialects closely resemble each other, and the common main point of distinction is the method of forming the oblique case of masculine nouns ending in -a consonant. In Sirmaurī these end in \bar{e} or \bar{e} , in Baghātī in -a, and in the languages of the Kiūthalī group in \bar{e} or \bar{e} . [LSI p. 549]

KIŨTHALI

Kiūthali is properly the language of the state of Keonthal (Kiūthal) and is the principal language of the Simla Hill States. It is the vernacular language of Simla itself.

The state of Keonthal is scattered in various detached portions over the middle of the Simla Hills, and has, moreover, various subordinate states, such as Theog, Koti and others. Kiūthali is

spoken in the main portion of the state immediately to the southeast of Simla, and also in the subordinate state of Koti. It is also spoken in the Śrīnagar thana of Patiala and in the states of Dhami and Bhajji as well as in the headquarters of Simla.

To its east Kiūthalī has Sirmaurī, Simla Sirājī, Bararī, Kīrnī, and Śodhochī, to its south Baghātī, to its west Handūrī, and to its north Sukētī, all of which are closely allied to Kiūthalī.

The most striking peculiarities of Kinthali are the termination -o of the oblique form of masculine nouns ending in consonants, as compared with the -a of Baghati and the -e of Sirmauri, and the use of -hage as the postposition of the dative. [LSI p. 550]

The following is the brief grammatical sketch of the dialect:

Pronunciation. Kiūthalī strongly resembles Sirmaurī in its phonetic system. There is the same pronunciation of a as the δ of 'hot', and of \bar{a} , at the end of a word, as \bar{o} . Both these are prominent features of Kiūthalī. The use of \bar{o} , and sometimes \bar{u} , instead of a final \bar{a} is also very common. Thus, we have both chōhtā and chōhtō, 'a son'. An initial a or \bar{a} is sometimes elided, as in $g\bar{\iota}th\bar{\iota}$ (Hindī $ang\bar{\iota}th\bar{\iota}$). A peculiar sound resembling a much prolonged German \bar{u} , as in $b\bar{u}hn$ is met with. This sound also occurs in Kāshmirī. H is dropped as frequently as in the other Simla Hill dialects. So also aspiration of consonants, especially of sonants is sometimes dropped, as in $b\bar{a}\bar{\iota}$, for $bh\bar{a}\bar{\iota}$.

Ch and j are pronounced as ts and a z (often dz), as in Pisacha languages. R occurs initially in words, which does not occur in other Indian languages. Thus, rāmbī, 'a weeding instrument'. Another noteworthy peculiarity is the frequent change of t (especially when representing an older tr) to ch, as in chaun, 'three'; chāmbā, 'copper'. [LSI pp. 559-561]

Nouns. All nouns, without exception, have their agent and plucative cases singular and plural, ending in -ē. Thus, gohrē, 'by or in a horse, or by or in horses', from gohrā, 'a horse',

Except in the nominative and vocative cases, all Kiūthalī nouns have the plural the same as the singular. The only nouns in which the nominative plural is different from the nominative singular are masculine tadbhavas in \bar{a} (\bar{o}) like $g\bar{o}hr\bar{a}$.

Case relations are indicated by postpositions. The oblique form itself can also be used without a postposition for any oblique case. The commonest postpositions are:

Accusative -khē, -hāgē, -gē

Instrumental -same as the ablative. Sometimes the same as the agent.

Dative -khē, -hāgē, -gē, -rī tēī, -rī khātar, 'to or for'.

Ablative -dā (-dō), -hāgō, -phā 'from'; -sāthī, 'with'.

Genitive -ra.

Locative $-d\bar{a}$ (-do), $-m\tilde{a}j\bar{e}$, 'in'; $-p\bar{a}nde$, 'upon'.

[LSI pp. 561-564]

Adjectives: The rule for adjectives is the same as in Hindi. Pronouns: The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; ã, ãw, 'I' hamē, hāmē, 'we'; tū, 'thou', tumē, tussē, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns, eh, 'this', and $s\bar{e}$ 'that', are also used as pronouns of the third person. These have feminine and (in the singular) neuter forms. The relative pronoun $j\bar{o}$ and interrogative pronoun kun 'who?', are declined like the demonstrative pronouns. [LSI pp. 565-568]

 ${\it Verbs}: Auxiliary \ verbs \ and \ verbs \ substantive:$ The present tense is thus conjugated:

'I am', etc.

Sing. Plur.

1. δssu , asu, $\sim u$ δssu , asu, \tilde{u} 2. $\delta ss\bar{e}$, $as\bar{e}$, ai $\delta ss\bar{o}$, $as\bar{o}$, \bar{o} 3. $\delta ss\bar{a}$, $\delta ss\bar{o}$, $as\bar{a}$, $as\bar{o}$

It will be seen that there are three sets of forms. The first commences with a short \tilde{o} , followed by double ss, the second commences with \tilde{a} , followed by a single s, and the third is a simple vowel or diphthong. In the third person the termination may be either $-\tilde{a} \sim -\tilde{o}$, according to the general law, that final $-\tilde{a} \sim -\tilde{o}$ are interchangeable, but the usual forms are $\tilde{o}ss\tilde{o}$, $\tilde{a}s\tilde{a}$, \tilde{a} and \tilde{o} . There is a negative form of the present, $n\tilde{i}h$, $\tilde{a}nthi$, which is the same for all persons of both numbers.

The past is $th\bar{\imath}a \sim tha$; plur., $th\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath} \sim th\bar{\imath}$; fem. (both numbers) $th\bar{\imath}$. Like the Hindi tha it does not change for person.

Active verb: The infinitive or verbal noun is formed by adding $-n\bar{u}$ ($\sim -nu$) to the root. Thus, $t\bar{\imath}pn\bar{u} \sim t\bar{\imath}pnu$, 'to strike'.

The past participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{a}$ or $(-d\bar{o})$ to the root. Its oblique masculine ends in $-d\bar{e}$, and its feminine in -di. Thus, $t\bar{i}pd\bar{a}$, 'striking'.

The past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{a}$ ($\sim -\bar{o}$) to the root. Thus, $t\bar{v}p\bar{a}$ ($t\bar{v}v\bar{o}$), 'struck'.

The second person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root. The second person plural adds $-\bar{\sigma}$ ($\sim -\bar{a}$). Thus, $t\bar{\tau}p$, 'strike thou'; $t\bar{\tau}p\bar{\sigma}$ ($\sim t\bar{\tau}p\bar{a}$), 'strike ye'.

The present indicative is conjugated as follows:

'I strike,' etc.

	Sing,	Plur.
1.	ţīpū	ţīpū
2.	ţīpē	ţīpō, ţīpā
3.	tīpō, tīpā	tīvo, tīva

A present definite may be formed by adding the verb substantive to the simple present, as in tipo osso, 'he is striking'; but more usually it is formed by adding lage roa either to the present participle or to the oblique form of the infinitive.

The future is conjugated as follows. It changes for gender:

	Sing.		Plur.	
:]	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	țากนิสี, țากนิกสี	$tar{\imath}par{u}_{ar{\imath}}$, $tipar{u}mar{ar{arepsilon}}$	ţīpūmę̃	tipūmī
2.	tīpēlā (-lō)	ţīpēlī	ţīpŏlē	ṭīpōlī
3.	tīpolā (-lō)	ţīpōlī	tīpōlē	ţīpōlī

The past tense is formed exactly as in Hindi. The past participle alone is used. In the case of transitive verbs, the participle is passive, and the subject is put in the case of the agent, exactly as in Hindi. Thus, $m\tilde{o}_{\tilde{e}}$ $t\bar{t}p\bar{u}$, 'he was struck by me'. $m\tilde{o}_{\tilde{e}}$ $t\bar{t}p\bar{i}$, 'she was struck by me', and so on.

The passive voice is formed as in Hindī, with zāṇā, 'to go', as in ā tipā zāū, 'I am being beaten', but it is seldom used.

Causal verbs, are, as a rule, formed by adding -au to the root. Thus, tipaunū (with the i shortened), 'to cause to strike'.

[LSI pp. 568-574]

HANDURÍ

The word 'Handūri' means literally, the language of the state of Hindur or Nalagarh, lying immediately to the south-west of the rest of the Simla Hill States. But it is not the language of the whole of the state, and it is also spoken in other states adjoining.

In Nalagarh itself two languages are spoken. To the west there is the Pōwādhī Pañjābī of the plains. In the east the language is Haṇḍūrī, which is also spoken in the state of Mailog, lying to the east of Nalagarh.

To the north-east of Nalagarh and to the north of Mailog lie the states of Baghal and Kunhiar. Here the language is Bāghalī.

It is only Handuri, but more mixed with Panjabi. It is, in fact, a transition dialect showing Handuri merging into the Kahluri Panjabi of Bilaspur.

Handuri itself is a transitional form of speech. It is a mixture of Kiūthali and Panjābi, and a very brief notice will suffice to show its character.

[LSI p. 586]

Nouns. Nouns may be declined as in Kiūthalī with the plural generally the same as the singular, and with masculine nouns, like ghar, ending in consonants, making the oblique form in -ō (gharō), or they may be declined as in Pañjābī with an oblique plural in -ā, as in hārīyā-khē, 'to the servants'.

The agent case generally takes the Panjābī postposition $-n\bar{e}$, but sometimes, we have the Kiūthalī termination $-\bar{e}$ as well, as in putē- $n\bar{e}$, 'by the son'. The locative may end either in the Kiūthalī $-\bar{e}$, or may be formed as in Panjābī. The postposition of the dative-accusative is the Kiūthalī $-kh\bar{e}$, with $-g\bar{e}$ for a variety. The postposition $-j\bar{o}$ is also used for the same cases. The usual postposition of the ablative is $-t\bar{e}$, as in $k\bar{u}\bar{e}-t\bar{e}$, 'from the well', or $-th\bar{e}$. The genitive almost always has the Kiūthalī $-r\bar{a}$, but sometimes we find the Panjābī $-d\bar{a}$.

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are $h\tilde{a}\tilde{n}$, T; $\bar{a}s\bar{e}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u} \sim t\bar{u}$. 'thou'; $tus\bar{e}$, 'you'. For the demonstrative pronouns, we have \bar{e} , 'this', and $s\bar{e}$, $\sim o$, 'that'. As usual, these are also used as pronouns of the third person. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{o}$. 'Who?' is $ki\bar{o}$ and 'what?' is $ky\bar{a}$.

Verbs. As regards verbs, the verb substantive is the same as in Panjābī, but $h\bar{e} \sim hai$ may also be used for any person of either number. $Nih\bar{a}$, is 'I am not'.

The principal parts of the verb marna, 'to strike', are as follows:

Present participle marda; past participle mareya~marya.

Imperative 2. Sing. mar; plur., maro.

Old present Sing. 1. $mar\tilde{u}$, 2. $mar\tilde{e}$, 3. $mar\tilde{e}$; plur. 1. $mar\tilde{e}$, 2. $mar\tilde{o}$, 3. $mar\tilde{e}$.

The future is:

Masc. Sing. 1. mārūgā, 2. mārgā, 3. mārgā; plur. 1. mārgē, 2. mārogē, 3. mārgē.

The past tenses are formed as usual from the past participle.

[LSi pp. 586-587]

SIMLA SIRĀJĪ

In the difficult mountain country, known as Sirāj, comprising the east of the main portion of Keonthal state, including the small states of Theog and Ghund and part of Punur, part of the state of Kumharsain, the states of Darkoti, and Balsan, the Kaneti tract of the state of Bashahr, and most of the British tract of Kotkhai, the dialect spoken closely resembles standard Kiūthali. To distinguish the dialect spoken here from the Sirāji of Kulu, we may call it Simla Sirājī. [LSI p 593]

The following are the points in which it differs from the standard Kiūthali:

Pronunciation. As in Sirmauri, a final -i very often becomes -ē. It is especially common in the case of feminine nouns. There is the same interchange of final - \bar{o} and - \bar{a} that we have observed in Kiūthali, as in $d\bar{o} \sim d\bar{a}$, the sign of the ablative case, but the \bar{o} termination is much more common.

Nouns. The declension of nouns is nearly the same as in Kiūthalī. The only important difference is that masculine nouns ending in a consonant often have an oblique form in $-\delta$ instead of $-\delta$. Thus, the oblique form of $de\dot{s}$, 'a country', is either $de\dot{s}\delta \sim de\dot{s}\delta$. The postpositions of the dative are $-k\bar{e} \sim -k\delta$ instead of $kh\bar{e}$, and $ag\bar{e}$ instead of $h\bar{a}g\bar{e}$.

PAHARI-10

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; \tilde{a} , 'I'; $t\bar{u}$, 'thou', \tilde{e} , $aim\tilde{u}$, $\tilde{e}\tilde{u}$, 'we', $tu\tilde{e}$, 'you'. As usual, the demonstrative pronouns $\bar{e}h$, 'this'; and $s\bar{e}$, 'that' are used as pronouns of the third person. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{v}$. 'What?' is $k\bar{a}$ instead of $k\bar{a}h$, and 'anything' is kichh instead of kuchh.

Verbs. The verb substantive is thus conjugated in the present tense:

'I am,' etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	ũ	ũ
2.	ai	Ö
3.	au, o, o	au, 0, 0

Or $s\bar{o}$, $\bar{o}s\bar{o} \sim \bar{o}s\bar{o}$ may be used for any person of any number as in Biśśau dialect of Sirmauri.

The past is $t\bar{a} \sim th\bar{a}$, fem. $t\bar{\imath} \sim th\bar{\imath}$, etc.

The conjugation of the present differs slightly from the standard. It is:

'I beat', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$par{\imath}tar{u}$	pīţü
2.	pīţā	piţō
3.	vītō	pito

Similarly, the future masculine is:

'I shall beat', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	pīṭūla	pīţūm ē , p īţm ē
2.	pīţēla	pīțōlē, pīţlē
3.	pīţēla, p ī ţl ā	pīţōlē, pīţlē [LSI pp. 593-595]

ŚŎRĀCHŌLĪ

Śŏrāchŏlī is the Pahārī dialect of the Thakurate of Rawain, a portion of the Keonthal state. The Thakurate is situated immediately to the east of the Barār Pargana of Jubbal.

As Śŏrāchŏlī is closely connected with Sirājī, it will be sufficient to give a brief account of the principal points in which the grammar differs from that standard Kiāthalī. [LSI p. 602]

Pronunciation. The interchange of $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{e} is extremely common; thus we have paunchārē dīnē, 'a feast was given'. Similarly, the confounding of vowels \bar{a} , \bar{o} , and \bar{u} is very common. The termination of the genitive is either $-r\bar{o} \sim -r\bar{a}$, and that of the ablative is $-d\bar{a}$, $-d\bar{o}$, $-d\bar{u}$. The elision of initial h is very common. Thus, $h\bar{a}m\bar{e} \sim \bar{a}m\bar{e}$, 'we'. As example of the metathesis of the consonant h, we have $\bar{a}hth$, 'a hand'.

Nouns. In Kiūthalī the oblique form of masculine nouns ending in consonants is made by adding - σ . Thus, gauhr, 'a house', obl. gauhr σ . In Sirājī this - σ often becomes - σ , and this is also the case in Śŏrāchŏlī. The postpositions closely resemble those of the standard. The genitive takes - $\tau \bar{a}$ (- $\tau \bar{\sigma}$) as usual. For the instrumental there is $k\bar{\sigma}r\bar{r}$ ($k\bar{\sigma}r\bar{e}$), as, in $r\bar{\sigma}st\bar{e}$ $k\bar{\sigma}r\bar{r}$ $b\bar{a}nh$, 'bind (him) with ropes'. For the ablative, besides - $d\bar{a}$ (- $d\bar{\sigma}$, - $d\bar{u}$), there are khu and kiu. For the locative there is the usual - $d\bar{a}$ (- $d\bar{\sigma}$).

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the personal pronoun are; \tilde{a} , $\tilde{a}\tilde{u}$, 'l'; $h\tilde{a}m\tilde{z}$, $am\tilde{e}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; $tum\tilde{e}$ 'you'. The demonstrative pronoun 'this' is \tilde{e} and that is $s\tilde{e}$, $s\tilde{e}\tilde{o}$. The relative pronoun is $ju\tilde{e}$ or $j\tilde{o}$. Ka is 'what ?'.

 $\mathcal{V}erbs$. The verb substantive has many forms for the present. The following have been noted:

'I am', etc.

Sing. and Plur-

1. ŏsū, āsū, sū

2, 3. ŏsŏ, sŏ, ŏsō, so, āsā (ō), sā, ō, ō

The singular and plural are the same, and so are the second and third persons. The past is $th\bar{o} \sim thiy\bar{o}$.

The active verb shows few irregularities, and most of these are matters of spelling.

The present tense is thus conjugated:

'I strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	piţū	pīţā, pīţē
2.	pīţo	pīţō, pīţē
3.	pīţō, pīţō, pīţā	pītā, nītē

The above are the forms noted. There are doubtless others also. The following forms have been noted for the future masculine:

'I shall strike', etc.

Sing.	Plur.
1. piţūlo	pīţūlē
2. pīţlō	pīţēlē
3. pīţlo	pīţlē
The past is quite regular.	[LSI pp. 602-604]

KŌCHĬ

In the western half of the state of Bashahr, the language spoken is Aryan, and towards the east the language is the Tibeto-Burman Kanāw^arī or Kanaurī, and other connected forms of speech. There are doubtless many Aryan dielects spoken among the western mountains and these are all grouped together by the local tradition under the name of Kōchī.

The brief grammatical sketch given below is presumably based on the dialect spoken near Rampur, which is a form of Kiūthalī, closely allied to Simla Sinājī and Śŏrāchŏlī. It shows a few traces of the influence of the Kulu Sirājī spoken on the other side of the Satlaj, such as the use of the postposition -lē for the dative, but these are of small importance, and Kōchī must certainly be classed as a form of Kiūthalī. [LSI p. 613]

77

Pronunciation. As regards pronunciation the facts are much as in Sirājī. Thus there is the frequent interchange of \bar{e} and \bar{i} , as in ghōrchī \sim ghōrchē, 'property'. So also, there is the interchange of \bar{a} , \bar{o} and \bar{u} . As in Kiūthalī, the aspiration of the initial aspirated consonant is transferred to the end of the first syllable. An initial v is liable to be dropped, as in $\bar{a}d$ for $v\bar{a}d$, 'memory'.

Nouns. In the declension of nouns we have the occasional Sirāji change of $-\bar{o}$ to $-\bar{o}$ as in $m\bar{a}ns\bar{o}-r\bar{e}$, 'of a man'. In other respects the oblique form is made as in Kiūthalī.

In addition to the usual Kiūthalī postpositions, we may note $-l\bar{e}$, 'to'; wile, 'near': $-m\tilde{a}j\bar{\imath}$, 'with, together with' and $-k\tilde{o}r\bar{e}$ ($\sim k\tilde{o}r\bar{\imath}$), 'with, by means of'.

Pronouns. There are several forms differing slightly from those found in standard Kiūthalī. Thus, we have hau or hā, 'I'; tū, 'thou'; e or yah, 'this'. Kā is 'what?' and kichh, 'anything'.

Verbs. The verb substantive in the present tense is $so \sim aso$. This verb has also a present participle asdo, and a conjunctive participle asiyo, with which forms we may compare the Kashmīrī asun, 'to be', which is conjugated throughout.

The imperfect is tha, etc., as usual.

The conjugation of the active verb calls for few remarks, as it is practically the same as in Kiū; thali. [LS: pp. 615-616]

LIST OF THE STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

English	$K_1 \widetilde{u}_t hal i$	Handūrī
one	ēk	ēk
two	dō	đō
three	chaun	tin
four	<u>t</u> sār	c hā r
hand	hāth	hāth
foot	lāt	pair
head	$m\overline{u}$ ņ \dot{q}	sir
a father	bāpū	bāō
of a father	bāpū-rā	bāō-rā
to a father	bāpū-kh ē, hāgō	bãō-khē
two fathers	dō bāpū	do bae
I am	ã ŏssū, āsū	hã ũ hẽ
thou art	tū õssē, āsē	tñ hë
he is	sē ossā, ossā, āsā, āso	s ē hē
we are	hamã össu, āsu	asē hē
you are	tumė̃ osso, aso	tusē hē
they are	sē ossā, ossō, āsā, āsō	sē hē
I was	ã tha, thiya	hã ũ thã '
thou wast	tū thā, thīya	t ũ tha
he was	sē thā, thīyā	sē thā
we were	ham ë thë, thiyë	āsē thē
you were	tum ẽ thē, thīyē	tusē thē

FOR THE KIŪTHALĪ GROUP

Sčracholi Simla Sirājī ěk ěk duī ďõ chaun chīn chār chār ahth hāth bagņē lāt mãḍ mũd bābū bāba bābū-rā bābē-rā bābu-khē bābē-ka dui bābū do babe aū ŏsū, āsū, sū ãt so, oso, osō tū ŏsŏ, sŏ, āsā, sā tū ai, sō, ŏsō, ŏsō, sē, ŏsŏ, sŏ, āsā, sā sē au, ō, ŏ, sō, ŏsō, ŏsō, ē ū, sō, osō, osō āmē, ŏsū, āsū, sū tumē oso, so, āsā, sā tuē ō, sō, ŏsō, ŏsō se oso, os, asa, sa sē au, ō, ŏ, sō, ŏsō ŏsō aū thò ã ta, thā tu tho tū tā, thā sē thō sē tā, thā āmē thiệ ē tē, thē tumē thē tue te, the

English	$Ki { ilde{\imath}}_i thal { ilde{\imath}}$	Handuri
they were	sē thē, thīyē	sē thē
I shall be	ã ohuma	hãữ hữga ữga
I beat	ã țīpū	hãữ mãrữ
thou beatest	tū ţīpē	t õ mārē
he beats	sē tīpā, tīpō	sē mārē
we beat	hamē ţīpū	āsē mārē
you beat	tumē tīpā, tīpo	tusē mārō
they beat	sē tīpā, tīpō	sē mārē
I beat (past)	mō ē ţīpā	m ē mārēyā
thou beatest (past)	tō ẽ țipa	t ē mārēyā
he beat (past)	tīnīē ţīpā	tiniy ē mārēyā
we beat (past)	hamē ţīpā	āsē mārēyā
you beat (past)	tumē ţīpā	tusē mārēyā
they beat (past)	tīhnē ţīpā	tinē mārēya
I shall beat	ã tīpdā lāg ā-r ōā	hãu mar ū ga

Simla Sirājī	Sõrachöli
sē tē, thē	sē thē
ã hula	aন ত্যাত
ã piţū	at pițu
tū pīţē, pìţā	tū pitō
sē piţō	së pitö
ē pīţū	āmē piţē
tuž pito	tumē pītē
sē pīţō	sē pitā
mõş piţā	muj pięs
toë pita	tui pho
tënnë pita	tiņi pitē
ẽ piță	āmē pito
tue piță	tume pito
tinē pīṭā	tinë piçō
ã pițula	aũ pițulo
	[LSI pp. 627-645]

.5 .

THE SATLAJ GROUP

The hill country between the river Bias and the river Satlaj. known as Kulu Siraj, consists of a high range dividing two systems of valleys,—one feeding the former and the other the latter river. The northern, or Bias, system of valleys is known as Inner Siraj, and the southern, or Satlaj system is known as Outer Siraj.

The language spoken across the Satlaj in Outer Siraj is closely allied to that spoken in the portion of the south side of the Satlaj valley opposite Outer Siraj, and including the state of Sangri, parts of Keonthal and Kumharsain, a small portion of Bashahr and the Kotgarh 'alāqa of Simla, and, for convenience of reference, these two are put together as forming the Satlaj Group.

The language of Inner Siraj, on the Bias side of the watershed, is different, and is allied to Kuluī.

The Satlaj group forms a linguistic stepping stone between the languages of the Simla Group and those of Kulu Group. It consists, as explained, of two dialects, viz. Śŏdōchī spoken south of the Satlaj, and Outer Sirājī spoken north of the river. The following is the brief grammatical sketch of Śŏdōchī. The points where outer Sirājī differs have been noted. [LSI pp. 647-648]

Pronunciation. The pronunciation of Śŏdōchī and Outer Sirājī follows the usual Western Pahārī lines. A is almost always pronounced as the $\check{\sigma}$ in hot. There is the same continual change of a final \bar{a} to \bar{u} or $\bar{\sigma}$. Unlike, however, the other Simla dialects, the vowel $\bar{\sigma}$, whether original or a secondary development, is always changed to au when final, and often undergoes the same change when not final. Thus, the Hindī $h\bar{\sigma}n\bar{a}$, 'to become', is represented in Sŏdōchī by aunau or auhnau.

Ch often becomes ts, as in chhōtu or $tshōt\bar{u}$, 'a son', and similarly j becomes z, as in uz unau, for ujunau, 'to arise', or dz, as in $dz\bar{\imath}bh$, for $j\bar{\imath}bh$, 'the tongue'. H is often dropped, as in $\delta tnau$, 'to go to one side', Hind $\bar{\imath}$ hatna. Sometimes the h is

retained, but is placed after the vowel which it originally preceded, as in aunau or auhnau, the Hindī hōnā, 'to become'. The same is the case with aspirated sonant consonants. T (especially when representing an older tr), as usual, is liable to be changed to ch. Thus, we have chaun, 'three'; rach, Hindī rat, 'night'. [LSI p. 652]

Nouns. A very common termination of nouns and adjectives is tau (or trau) added without changing the meaning. Thus, we have bahrtau, 'a load', Hindī, bhar.

The declension of nouns as a whole closely follows that of the Simla dialects, but there are divergencies of importance.

The genitive termination $-r\bar{v}$ of Simla drops its initial r, and becomes au (or b), which is added, like a true termination, to the main word. Thus, the genitive of gauhr, 'a house', is gauhrau or $gauhr\bar{v}$, and of $tsh\bar{v}t\bar{t}$, 'a girl', $tsh\bar{v}t\bar{u}au$. In the case of nouns ending in -au ($-\bar{u}$, $-\bar{v}$) or $-\bar{u}$, the termination of the nominative is dropped, and the genitive (singular or plural) termination is $-\bar{v}au$, that of the agent being $-\bar{v}vai$. Thus, from $g\bar{v}hrau$, 'a horse', the genitive (singular or plural) is $g\bar{v}hr\bar{v}au$ ($g\bar{v}hr\bar{v}av$), and the agent (singular or plural) $g\bar{v}hr\bar{v}vai$ ($-\bar{v}v\bar{v}$).

The other cases, as elsewhere, are formed with postpositions added to an oblique form. The postpositions of the dative-accusative is -lai (of which -lē and -lhē are variants), or -kē. That of the locative is -dē or -dī, though sometimes, in the parable, we come across the Kiūthalī adjectival -dō. For the ablative the postposition is $-k\bar{a}$, or $-thak\bar{a}$, $-m\tilde{a}$ means from in.

[LSI pp. 652-654]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the first two personal pronouns are; $m\tilde{u}$ (o.s. $h\tilde{u}$) 'I'; $ham\tilde{e}$, $ham\tilde{e}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; $tum\tilde{e}$, $tum\tilde{e}$, 'you'. In the nominative plural, the final nasal may be omitted.

The demonstrative pronouns, also used as pronouns of the 3rd person, have three genders in the singular, when used as substantives. When used as adjectives, the masculine form is used

whatever may be the gender of the noun with which they are in agreement. The nominative singular forms are; jau (jō), ēū, ēh (o.s. also ē), 'this', sau (sō) sai (sē) (o.s. also ōh)

The interrogative pronoun is kun, 'who?'. Its neuter is kai (ke) and the relative pronoun is dzau or dzun, 'who'.

[LSI pp. 654-655]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The verb substantive in the present takes the form \bar{a} , $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$, or (o.s.) assa, all of which are used for all persons of both numbers. In the first person singular and plural, we also find the form \bar{a} . O. s. has also \bar{a} in the first person singular.

The past tense is tau (- $t\bar{o}$), plur. tai (- $t\bar{e}$); fem. sing. and plur. $t\bar{i}$. A negative verb substantive is $n\bar{e}h_{\bar{i}}$ ainthi, 'I am not'. It does not change for number or person.

Active verb. The infinitive is formed by adding -nau (-na, -no); thus, we have, pitnau (-na, -no) 'to strike'.

The present participle is formed by adding -dau (-da, $-d\bar{o}$); thus, pitdau (-da, $-d\bar{o}$), 'striking'. The past participle is formed by adding -au ($-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{o}$); thus pitau ($-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{o}$), 'struck'.

The second singular imperative is the same as the root; thus, pit, 'strike thou'. The second plural is formed by adding -au (o.s. -a); thus, pitau (o.s. pita). 'strike ye'.

The present is used both as a present indicative and as a present subjunctive, and in Outer Siraj as a future. It is conjugated as under:

'I strike, I may strike (o.s. I shall strike)', etc.

Sing. Plur.

1. piţū piţī, piţā

2. & 3. piţā piţā

A definite present may be formed with the past participle of the verb laggnau, and the present participle, as in $m\tilde{u}$ pitdau $l\tilde{u}gau$ aundau, 'I am beating', equivalent to the Hindi mai marta laga hota $(h\tilde{u})$.

The future is thus conjugated:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	piţmū, piţū	pitmē, piţī, piţā
2.	piţa	piţa
3.	piţa	piţā

It will be seen that this tense is the same as the present, except that it has additional forms in the first person singular and plural.

The past tenses are formed from the past participles as usual, and need no remarks. [LSI pp. 655-657]

STANDARD LIST OF SELECT WORDS AND PHARASES IN THE SÖDÖCH! DIALECT

English	Śŏdōchĩ
one	ēk
two	dōē, dōi
three	chaun
four	tsär
hand	hatth
foot	lat
head	papa m
a father	bab
of a father	babo
to a father	bābā-lai
two fathers	dōē bāb
I am	mã ã, ā, āsā
thou art	tū ā, āsā
he is	sō ā, āsā
we are	hame a, a, asa
you are	tume a, asa
they are	sai ā, āsā
I was	mũ tau
thou wast	tů tau
he was	số tau

15.7

English	Sodochi
we were	hamē tai
you were	tumē tai
they were	sai tai
I shall be	mữ aumũ
I beat	mã pitū
thou beatest	tu pita
he beats	sō piță
we beat	hame pitl, pita
you beat	tume pita
they beat	sai pitā
I beat (past)	mai pitau
thou beatest (past)	taī piţau
he beat (past)	tini piţau
we beat (past)	hamē piţau
you beat (past)	tumē piţau
they beat (past)	tīnē piţau
I shall beat	mữ piţmữ
	[LSI pp. 663-667]

KULU GROUP

In Kulu and Siraj Tahsils of Kulu subdivisions of the Kangra district, except a few isolated spots such as Malana in Kulu, the language spoken belong to the Western Pahārī Group. The principal river of the Kulu Tahsil is the Bias. The river Sainj, running east to west, joins the Bias at Lārjī, near the western boundary of the subdivision.

Siraj lies between the Sainj and, on the south, the Satlaj. It is cut into a northern and southern half by the Jalori or Suket range. The northern portion being known as Inner Siraj, and the southern as Outer Siraj. The language of Outer Siraj forms a member of the Satlaj Group of languages, and has been described above. The language of Kulu proper is known as Kuļuī or Kuļuhī. That of the Inner Siraj is known as Inner Sirājī. In the valley of the Sainj, there is a distinct dialect, akin to Inner Sirājī, which Mr. Graham Bailey names Sainjī. [LSI p. 669]

KULUĪ

This dialect is spoken in Kulu proper, i.e. in the Kulu Valley on the Upper Bias. It possesses most of the peculiarities of the Western Pahāṇi dialect already described, but presents a few independent features. Although it has the usual Western Pahāṇi tendency to pronounce a like the ŏ in 'hot', and ā like ō or a, this is not so universal as in the Simla Group. In the declension of nouns we may note that masculine nouns ending in a consonant have an oblique form ending in -ē or -ā, and that similar feminine nouns have an oblique form in -ī. The postposition of the dative is -liĕ, and -na is used both for the locative and for the ablative. The word for 'he is' is sā or hē, and for 'he was', tī or thā. The distinguishing mark of the future tense is the consonant l, and the past participle usually ends in -ū, but sometimes in -a.

[LSI p. 670]

The consonantal changes noted in the Simla dialects also occur in Kului, but are not so frequent. Final s is often changed to h, as in brās or brāh, 'rhododendron'. Instead of initial kh, we have chh in the word chhēt, 'a field'. As in the Simla dialects, there is a preference to the s-sounds, instead of s. [LSI p. 673]

Nouns. As in the Simla Pahārī dialects, the plural is, as a rule, the same as the singular. The only exceptions are tadbhava masculine nouns in -a and feminine nouns ending in a consonant. The former make the nominative plural by changing $-\bar{a}$ to $-\bar{e}$; thus $gh\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, a horse'; $gh\bar{o}r\bar{e}$, horses'. The latter add $-\bar{i}$ in the nominative plural. Thus, $b\bar{e}hn$, a sister'; $b\bar{e}hn\bar{i}$, sisters'. The oblique cases of the plural are always the same as those of the singular.

The nouns have also a case of the agent singular or plural formed by adding $-\bar{e}$ to the oblique form. But if the oblique form already ends, or can end, in $-\bar{e}$, this $-\bar{e}$ is dropped before the $-\bar{e}$ of the agent case; thus $gh\bar{\sigma}r\bar{e}$, 'a horse', obl. form $gh\bar{\sigma}r\bar{e}$, ag. $gh\bar{\sigma}r\bar{e}$.

The cases are as usual, formed by postpositions added to the oblique form. These are, $r\bar{a}$, 'of'; $b\check{e}$, 'to'; $r\bar{\imath}$ $ta\bar{\imath}$ or $r\bar{\imath}$ $ta\bar{\imath}$, 'for'; na, 'from'; na, 'in'; $m \check{o} \check{n} j h \bar{e}$ or $m \check{a} \check{n} j \bar{e}$, 'in'; $m \check{o} \check{n} j h \bar{e} - na$, 'from in'; $s \check{o} n g h \bar{e}$, 'with, together with, or with, by means of'; $a g g \bar{e}$, near, towards, to near'. The genitive postposition is, as usual, an adjective, being $-r\bar{a}$ when agreeing with a masculine singular noun in the form of the nominative. [LSI pp. 673-674]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $ha\tilde{u}$, ' \tilde{l} '; $\tilde{a}ss\tilde{e}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; $tuss\tilde{e}$, 'you'. The demonstrative pronouns, which are also used as pronouns of the third person, are $\tilde{e}h$, 'this', and sau, 'that'. They have feminine forms in the singular of agentive and locative cases, but nothing corresponding to the neuter forms of the Simla dialects.

The relative pronoun is $j\bar{e}$ and interrogative pronouns are kun, 'who?' and $k\bar{i}$, 'what?'. [LSI pp. 675-676]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present, 'I am', etc., is $s\bar{a}$; plural $s\bar{a}$ or si used for all persons. If the subject is feminine, $s\bar{i}$ may be o tionally used in the singular. The negative verb substantive is $n\bar{e}h$ $\bar{a}th\bar{i}$, 'I am not', etc. used for all persons of both numbers. The past tense, 'I was', etc. is $t\bar{i}$, used throughout for both genders, both numbers, and all persons. Instead of $t\bar{i}$, we may have $th\bar{a}$, masc. plur. $th\bar{e}$, fem. sing. and plur. $th\bar{i}$ used exactly as in Hindī.

Active verb. The infinitive ends in $-n\bar{a}$ ($-n\bar{a}$) or $-n\bar{u}$ ($-n\bar{u}$); thus, $h\bar{o}n\bar{a}$ or $h\bar{o}n\bar{u}$, 'to be'.

The present participle ends in $-d\bar{a}$, or after a vowel, in $-nd\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}rd\bar{a}$, 'striking'. The past participle is usually formed by adding $-\bar{u}$ to the root, but sometimes we have $-\bar{a}$ instead of $-\bar{u}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\bar{u}$, 'beaten'.

The second person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root, and the plural adds $-\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}r$, 'strike thou'; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'strike ye'.

The old present corresponding to Hindī maī mārā, seems to have fallen out of use. The ordinary present is, however, formed from it. The old form was mārā, for all persons, of both numbers, and the modern present is formed by adding the present of the verb substantive to this. Thus, mārā-sā (or -sī, etc.), 'I strike, thou strikest', etc. for all persons of both numbers. A present definite is formed by suffixing -sā to the present participle. Thus, mārdā sā, 'I am striking', but the final ā, in this case, is usually dropped, so that we get mārdās (plur. mārdēs; fem. mārdīs), for all persons.

The future is thus conjugated:

'I shall strike', etc.

	Sing.		Plur.				
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.			
1.	māraŭ, mārnū	māraŭ, mārn ū	māraữ, mār n ữ	māraū, mārnū			
2.	m ā rlā	mārlī	$m \bar{a} r l ar{e}$	$m\bar{a}rl\bar{\imath}$			
3.	mārļā	mārlī	mārlē	$m \bar{a} r l \bar{\imath}$			

The tenses formed from the past participle, call for no remark. They are formed and used, exactly as in Hindi.

There is a distinct passive voice. In the infinitive, present participle, and future, $-\bar{\imath}$ is added to the root. Thus, $m\bar{\alpha}r\bar{\imath}n\bar{n}$, 'to be beaten'; $m\bar{\alpha}r\bar{\imath}nd\bar{a}$, 'being beaten'; $ha\bar{\imath}$ mar $\bar{\imath}nn\bar{n}$, 'I shall be beaten'. For the other tenses, the past participle in $\bar{\imath}a\bar{a}$ seems to be used, as in $ha\bar{\imath}$ m $\bar{\alpha}r\bar{\imath}a\bar{a}$ s \bar{a} , 'I am beaten'. The passive is often employed to express ability, as in $m\bar{\alpha}r\bar{\imath}nd\bar{a}$ -s \bar{a} , 'it can be struck, i.e., striking is possible'. [LSI pp. 676-679]

INNER SIRAJI

The following is the brief grammatical sketch of the dialect:

Pronunciation. The pronunciation is the same as in the Simla dialects. There is the same sound of a as the δ in 'hot', and as in Simla, a final a is absolutely interchangeable with δ . It is also, as in Outer Sirājī and Śŏdhōchī, equally interchangeable with au. When we have s in Hindī, we often have, as usual, an s pronounced as sh in Inner Sirājī, as in $s \delta bhla$, 'good'.

[LSI p. 689]

Nouns. The nominative plural is usually the same as the nominative singular. But tadbhava nouns in $-\bar{a}$ $(-\bar{o}, -au, -\bar{u})$ change the final $-\bar{a}$, etc. to $-\bar{e}$. Thus, $gh\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, 'a horse', plur. $gh\bar{o}r\bar{e}$. Feminine nouns ending in a consonant add $-\bar{a}$ in the plural. Thus, $bh\bar{v}n$, 'a 'sister', plural $bh\bar{v}n\bar{a}$. The oblique form plural is always the same as the oblique form singular.

The agent case, which is also used as a locative, is generally formed in the case of masculine nouns by adding $-\bar{e}$, or by changing a final $-\bar{a}$ ($-\bar{o}$, -au, $-\bar{u}$) to $-\bar{e}$. Thus, $gh\bar{o}_T\bar{a}$, 'a horse'; $gh\bar{o}_T\bar{e}$, 'by a horse, or by horses'. But in the case of feminine nouns the agent case is the same as the oblique form.

Most of the postpositions are the same as in the other Western Pahārī dialects and in Kuļuī, but there are a few peculiar to Inner Sirājī. The following are the more common:

-ra (-ro, -rau), 'of'.

-bē, 'to', Also used for the accusative like the Hindī -kō.

This is the same as in Kuļuī.

-rī tonī, 'for, for the sake of'.

-monje ~ -monjhe, 'in'.

-paraunde, 'on'.

-lērā, -nā, -kā, -āgē, 'from', and all also used to form an ablative of the instrument.

As usual the genitive postposition is an adjective.

[LSI pp. 689-690]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the first two personal pronouns are; $h\tilde{a}$, $h\tilde{a}\tilde{u}$, 'I'; assē, $h\tilde{a}mm\bar{e}$, 'we'; $t\bar{u}$, 'thou'; $t\bar{u}ss\bar{e}$, $t\tilde{o}mme$, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns, which are also used as pronouns of the third person, are $t\bar{o}$, $y\bar{e}$ 'this'; sau, sa, 'that'. In the agentive and oblique neuter cases they have masculine forms. The demonstrative pronoun sau, when the object of a verb, is often attached as a termination to the verb which governs it, and then drops its final vowel, and becomes simply s. Thus, $d\bar{e}$ -s, 'give it'.

The relative pronoun is $dz\bar{o}$, dzun and interrogative pronouns are kun, 'who?, which?' and $k\bar{e}$, 'what?'. [LSI pp. 691-692]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense of the verb substantive is $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ or $s\bar{a}$, 'I am, thou art', etc., which does not change in conjugation, being used for all persons of both numbers and both genders. There is a nagative verb substantive $n_{\tilde{i}}h$ (or $n_{\tilde{e}}\tilde{i}$) $\bar{a}d\bar{o}$, '(I) am not'.

The past of the verb substantive is thi, 'I was, thou wast', etc., which like asa, is immutable, and does not change for gender, number of person.

Active verb. The infinitive ends in -nā (-nō, -nau); thus, tsīknā (tsīknō, tsīknau), 'to strike'.

The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{a}$ ($-d\bar{o}$, -dau) to the root. Thus, $ts\bar{\imath}kd\bar{a}u$ ($ts\bar{\imath}kd\bar{o}$, $ts\bar{\imath}knau$), 'to strike'.

The present participle is formed by adding $-d\bar{a}$ ($-d\bar{o}$, -dau) to the root. Thus, $t_5\bar{\imath}kd\bar{a}u$ ($t_5\bar{\imath}kd\bar{o}$, $t_5\bar{\imath}kd\bar{a}u$), 'striking'. As in other Western Pahārī dialects, this participle is used in inceptive compounds, as in $t\bar{e}\bar{a}$ $khu\bar{s}\bar{\imath}$ $kard\bar{e}$ $l\bar{a}g\bar{e}$, 'they began to make rejoicing', and also as an infinitive of purpose.

The past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{a}$ ($-\bar{a}$, -au, $-\bar{u}$) to the root. Thus, $t \le \bar{i}k\bar{a}$ ($t \le \bar{i}k\bar{a}$), 'struck'. The terminations in -au and $-\bar{u}$ are those most commonly used.

The second person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root. The plural is formed by adding -ā. Thus, tsīk, 'strike thou'; tsīkā, 'strike ye'.

The old present or present subjunctive is conjugated as follows:

'I strike, I may strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	tsīkū, tsīkū	tsīkā, tsīk ā
2.	<u>tsīkē</u>	<u>t</u> sīkā
3.	tsīkē	t <u>s</u> īkau

The future is formed by adding -la (-lō, -lau) to the root. Of these -lau is the most common. This changes for number and gender, but does not change for person. Thus, tsīklau, 'I (masc.), thou (masc.) or he will strike'; tsīklē, 'we, you or they (all masc.) will strike'. The feminine is tsīklī for all persons of both numbers.

The present participle, without any auxiliary is used for the ordinary present, and changes for gender and number, but not for person. Thus, $ts\bar{\imath}kd\bar{a}$ (- $d\bar{o}$, -dau), I (masc.) strike, thou (masc.) strikest', and so on. The masculine plural is $ts\bar{\imath}kd\bar{a}$, and the feminine for both numbers is $ts\bar{\imath}kd\bar{\imath}$.

The imperfect is formed by adding thi to the present participle, as in $h\tilde{a}$ tsikdau-thi, 'I was striking'.

The tenses formed from the past participle call for no remark, they are made exactly as in Hindi. [LSI pp. 692-695]

SAINJI

Sainji is closely connected with Inner Sirāji. Therefore only a brief account of the points in which it differs from that dialect is being given.

Pronunciation. The pronunciation of Sainjī may be taken as, on the whole, the same as that of Inner Sirājī. There is a tendency to pronounce a or ā as au, even in the middle of a word. Thus, kahā or kauhaū, 'from'. The most noteworthy difference, however, is the Sainjī tendency to drop final vowels. Thus, instead of the Inner Sirājī ghörē-rā, Sainjī has ghōre-r, 'of a horse'.

[LSI p. 701]

Nouns. The result of the tendency to drop final vowels has reduced two postpositions namely $-r\bar{a}$ of the genitive, and $-b\check{e}$ of the dative-accusative to being simple consonants, r and b, respectively. Before other postpositions the ordinary oblique form is used. The other postpositions are the same as in Inner Sirājī, except that those of the ablative are $\bar{a}ga$, and $k\bar{a}$, $kah\bar{a}$, or $kauh\bar{a}$. [LSI pp. 701]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of personal pronouns are, haū, 'I'; assē, 'we'; tū, 'thou', tūssē, 'you'. The demonstrative pronouns are ēō, 'this', and so, 'that'. The remaining pronouns do not present important variations. [LSI pp. 702]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is $s\bar{a}$, which, as in Inner Sirājī is immutable. It is often suffixed to another word and then drops its vowel, as in $k\bar{e}s$, what is (your name)', for $k\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{a}$. The negative verb substantive is $n\bar{e}h\bar{i}$ athi, 'is not', and is also immutable.

The past tense is $t\bar{\imath}$ as in Kuluī, instead of the $th\bar{\imath}$ of Inner Sirājī. It is also immutable.

Active verb. The old present and present subjunctive is thus conjugated. It is the same in the singular and the plural, and the second and third persons are the same.:

'I may strike', etc.

Sing, and Plur,

1. tsīkū

2. & 3. tsīkē

The future has three forms, all different. It is not known, as to whether they all can be used with the same verb, but the terminations attached to the verb <u>tsīknā</u>, 'to strike' are being given here.

The first form changes the -l of the Inner Sirājī future to -r. We thus get the following, the singular and plural being identical:

'I shall strike', etc.

Sing, and Plur,

- 1. tsīkūr
- 2. tsīkar
- 3. tsīkār

The second form distinguishes the singular from the plural, but in each number there is no distinction of person. Thus;

'I shall strike', etc.

1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons

Sing. tsīkū

Plur. tsīkī

This form seems to be a derivative of the old present. This tense is often confounded with the future, and in Kāshmīrī has lost its present signification and is only used as a future or as a present subjunctive.

The third form takes the b which is the distinguishing mark of the future in Eastern India. The same b also occurs in the Gawarbati Piśācha language. Only one example, viz., $tsīk\bar{u}b$, 'I shall strike', is available.

[LSI pp. 703-704]

5
ALU GROL
<u> </u>
I
Z
E
I
<u>~</u>
O
S
B
Z
Z
S
1
X
SAN
RDS AND SENTENCES FOR I
ORDS AN
WORDS AN
RD WORDS AN
MARD WORDS AN
NDARD WORDS AN
LANDARD WORDS AN
STANDARD WORDS AN
CT STANDARD WORL
CT STANDARD WORL
SELECT STANDARD WORDS AN
CT STANDARD WORL
T OF SELECT STANDARD WORL
CT STANDARD WORL

SÕ SÃ	āssē sā			haŭ ti	tū ti	sõ tī	14. 10. 10. 10.	*1 2005.4	II ocena		na naŭ hōŭr, hōlā haŭ teibda	to tsikda		so tsikdā āssē teikdā
sau sā, āsā	388ē sā, āsā	iā tūssē sā, asā	t ^{ėj} sī, asī	hã thị	इति दीव	sau thī	āss é thi	tūssē thi	:n 4 !co	his hours has	hã tsìkdau	tu tsikdau	repair tes	asse tsikde
sau sā, hē	assē sī, sa, hē	tussē sī, sā, hā	të sî, sã, ha	haŭ tha, ti	tī thā, tī	sau thā, tī	āssē thē, ti	tussē thē, tī	të thë, ti	haŭ honu	haŭ mārā-sā	tū mārā-sā	sau mārā-sā	āssē mārā-sā
?	we are	you are	they are	I was	thou wast	he was	we were	you were	they were	I shall be	beat	hou beatest	e beats	re beat

Sainjī	tussē tsikdā	tēa tsikdā	m5ē tsikū	tauë tsiku	tevē tsiku	ahē tsiku	tüssē tsikū	teae tsiku	haŭ tsikur, tsiku, tsikub	[LSI pp. 705-713]
Inner Siraji	tussē tsikdē	tea tsikde	mai tsiku	tai tsikn	till tsiku	assē tsikn	tussē tsiku	क्ष्य केश्वर कि	haŭ tsikulau, tsiklau	
Kaļuī	tussē mārā-sā	të mära-sa	mai mārū	tai mārā	tele marn	asse mara	tussē mārd	tinhë maru	haŭ marnu	
English	you beat	they beat	I beat (past)	thou beatest (past)	he beat (past)	we beat (past)	you beat (past)	they beat (past)	I shall beat	

THE MANDI GROUP

The state of Mandi lies between Kulu and the district of Kangra. Immediately to its south lies the state of Suket, which is separated from the Simla Hill states by the river Satlaj. The language of Mandi is called Manděalī, and that of Suket is called Sukētī, the two being closely connected. The mountainous southeastern portion of the Mandi is geographically a portion of the Kulu Siraj, but the language spoken here is Manděalī slightly mixed with that language, and is called Manděalī Pahārī. Manděalī proper is spoken over the rest of the state.

[LSI p. 715]

While the language of Mandi is widely different from that of Kangra district, lying immediately to the west, in its general character, it does agree with it in a few points which we may here note. In all other points the western Pahārī character of Mandēāļī is well preserved.

In pronunciation Manděāļi agrees with Kangra than with Kulu. There does not seem to be any tendency to pronounce the ordinary a like the ö of hot'. Thus, we have ghar, 'a house', not ghör. The common Western Pahārī interchange of ā with o or ū has not been noted in Manděālī proper. The Western Pahārī changes of ch to ts, of j to z and of t (tr) to ch do not seem to occur. In all these Manděālī agrees with Kāngrī as against Western Pahārī. The distinguishing mark of the Manděālī future is not the Western Pahārī -lā, but the Kāngrī -ghā. Compare the Inner Sirājī tsīk-ul, 'I shall strike', with the manděalī and Kāngrī mār-ghā.

[Lsī p. 720]

MANDĔĀĻĪ

Pronunciation. As explained above standard Mandewli has abandoned the peculiarities of Western Pahärl pronunciation.

[LSI p. 721]

Nouns. Masculine tadhhava nouns in -a form their nominative plural in -a, and feminine nouns ending in a consonant

add -ī. Thus, ghōrā, 'a horse'; ghōrē, 'horses'; baihņ, 'a sister'; baihņī, 'sisters'. In the case of all other nouns the nominative plural is the same as the nominative singular.

For all nouns, all other cases of the plural, except the vocative, are the same as the corresponding case of the singular. The agent case is formed by adding $-\bar{e}$, as in ghar. 'a house'; gharē. 'by a house or houses'. The vocative singular of all masculine nouns ends in $-\bar{a}$, and of most feminine nouns in $-\bar{e}$, the vocative plural always ends in $-\bar{o}$.

The usual postpositions are:

Dative-accusative: -jo; for the dative we also have -kane.

'to'.

Ablative: -gē, -thē, 'from'; -kanē, 'with, together

with, with, by means of'; -sāogī, 'with'.

Genitive: -ra (masc. sing. obl. and plur. -re, fem.

-rī), which, as usual, is adjectival.

Locative: -manih ~ -maniha.

[LSI pp. 721-722]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; haũ, 'I'; āssē, 'we'; tū, 'thou'; tūssē, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns, which are also used as pronouns of the third person are, $\bar{e}h$, 'this', and $s\bar{e}$, 'they'. In the agentive and oblique cases these have fem. and neut. forms in the singular.

The relative and interrogative pronouns are; jō, je 'who'; kun, 'who?'; and kyā, 'what?'. [LSI pp. 722-723]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The verb substantive is hā for the present, and thā for the past. Both are adjectival, and neither changes for person, becoming hē and thē, respectively, when the subject is masculine plural, and hī and thī, respectively, it is feminine (sing. and plur.). North Manděali differs slightly. 'I am' is hē, and 'he is' is hā or hē. The past is thīa, plur. thīē; fem. thī.

Active verb. Besides the usual array of verbal nouns and participles, Mandeali has a participle indicating state or condition, as e.g. baithi-ra, 'in a state of being seated'; māri-ra, 'in a condition of being beaten'. The -ra is either the genitive post-position, or else the past participle of the verb raihna, 'to remain', and changes for gender and number in the usual way.

The infinitive is formed by adding $-n\bar{a}$ ($-n\bar{a}$) to the root; pauna, 'to fall'.

The present participle is formed by adding $d\bar{a}$ to the root, as in $m\bar{a}rd\bar{a}$, 'striking'. If the root ends in a vowel or a simple h, then $-nd\bar{a}$ is added.

The past participle is formed by adding -ya to the root. Thus, marya, 'struck'.

The imperative second person singular is the same in form as the root. Its plural adds -a. Thus, $m\bar{a}r$, 'strike thou'; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'strike ye'.

The present is formed by adding -ā to the root, to which the verb substantive hā is added. Thus, haũ mārā-hā, 'I strike', mārā does not change for number or person, but the hā changes for gender and number, but not for person. A present definite is formed, as in Hindi from the present participle, with the present of the verb substantive. Thus, haũ mār dā-hā, 'I am striking'.

The future tense, as has been stated above, agrees with Kāngrī, and not with Western Pahārī. It has two forms. The first is made, as in Kāngrī, by adding -ghā to the root. Thus, mārghā, '(I) shall strike' '(thou) wilt strike, (he) will strike.' This does not change for person, but, if the subject is in the masculine plural it becomes mārghā, and if the subject is feminine (singular or plural) it becomes mārghā. The second form of the future is made by adding -eng or, if the root ends in a vowel, -ng to the root. Thus, mārang. This does not change for gender, number or person.

The tenses formed from the past participle are formed axactly as in Hindī, and require few remarks.

The passive voice is formed, as in Hindi, by conjugating the past participle with jana, 'to go'. Thus, marva jana, 'to be struck'.

Causals are formed as in Hindi.

[LSI pp. 724-728]

MANDĔĀLĪ PAHĀRĪ

The Pahārī dialect of Maṇḍēālī is a mixed form of speech, partly resembling standard Maṇḍēālī and partly resembling Inner Sirājī. A brief notice pointing out where it differs from standard Maṇḍēālī will suffice.

In pronunciation we notice the occasional prefixing of an h before a vowel, just as in the Mandëālī hākkhī, 'an eye'. So here we have handar, 'within', and sanghē, not sangē' with'.

The declension of nouns closely resembles the standard. Most feminine nouns ending in consonants have the oblique form in -ā as in Inner Sirājī. Thus, bhīn 'a sister', obl. bhinā.

The pronouns are the same as in standard Mandčali. Mai is also used for $h\bar{a}\bar{b}$, 'I'.

For the present tense of the verb substantive, we have $h\bar{a}$ ($h\bar{e}$, $h\bar{\imath}$) as in the standard. The first person singular and plural is sometimes $h\bar{a}$.

Another, and a new form is ahda (masc. plur. ahda; fem. sing. and plur. ahda), which, like ha, does not change for person.

Yet another form is \$a, which does not change at all, being the same for singular, plural, masculine, feminine, and for any person.

The past is tha, (the. thi) as in the standard.

The conjugation of the active verb closely follows that of the standard dialect. While the principle of formation is the same, some of the forms vary slightly from the standard.

[LSI pp. 746-747]

SUKĒTĪ

Sukētī differs hardly at all from standard Manděalī. The main difference is in the vocabulary, which more nearly approaches that of Kiūthālī and Sirājī than does Manděālī.

A few points in grammar may be noted. There is the Kiūthalī tendency to pronounce \bar{e} as $\bar{\imath}$ and a as \bar{o} . Thus, we have as $\bar{\imath}$ for ase, he will come'; $kha\bar{o}$ for $kha\bar{a}$, 'they may eat'.

In the declension of nouns the locative of ghar, 'a house', is gharā, as in Mandĕālī Pahārī, not gharē. The postposition of the dative is $-j\bar{o}$ or $-l\bar{e}$, and of the ablative, $-th\bar{e}$ or $-t\bar{e}$. In the pronouns, for 'that', besides $-s\bar{e}$, we have also $-\bar{v}h$.

In verbs the present subjunctive occurs in asi (asē), he may come (asnā, 'to come'); khan, 'I may eat'; khao (for khaa), 'they may eat'. [LSI p. 757]

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES FOR THE MANDI GROUP

ĹĿŚ.I.

English	Maṇḍĕaḷī	Maṇḍĕaļī Pahāŗī	Sukētī
one	ēk	ěk	ēk
two	dnī	dīīī	dītī
three	traē	chīn, trāē	tīn
four	chār	chār	chār
hand	häth	hãth	hāthā
foot	pāõ, pair	pair	pairā
head	mund, sir	sir	muṇḍ
a father	bāb	bāb	bāb
of a father	bābā-rā	b ā bā-rā	bābbā-rā
to a father	bābā-jō	bābbā-jō	bābbā-jō
two fathers	duī bāb	d u ī bāb	dō bāb
I am	haũ hã, fem. hī	hāõ ahdā	haữ hã
thou art	$t\overline{\widetilde{u}}$ ha, $fem.$ hi	$t\overline{\widetilde{u}}$ āhda	tū hā
he is	sē hā, fem. hī	sō āhdā	ōh hai
we are	āssē hē, fem. hī	hamh ë āhdē	āss ē hai
you are	tussē hē, fem. hī	tumh ë āhdē	tussē hai
they are	sẽỗ h ẽ , fem. hĩ	sō āhdē	ōh hai
I was	haũ thã, fem. thì	hāō thā	haũ thã
thou wast	tū thā	tữ tha	tu tha
he was	s ē thā	sō thā	oh tha

Englis h	Manděaļī	Maṇḍĕāļī Pahāŗī	Sukētī
we were	$\bar{a}ss\bar{e}$ the, $fem.$ thi	hamhē thē	āssē thē
you were	tussē thē	tumh ẽ thē	tūssē thē
they were	sĕō thē	$s\bar{o}$ th \bar{e}	õh thē
I shall be	haŭ hūghā	hãỗ hộnghã	maī h õ ghā
I beat	haŭ märã-hā	bāō chikā-hā	haŭ mārã-hā
thou beatest	tũ mārã-hā	tō chikã-ha	tữ m ār ã-hā
he beats	sē mārã-hā	sō chikã-hā	ōh mārã-hā
we beat	āssē mārã-hē	hamhē chikā-hē	assē mārã-hē
you beat	tussē mārã-hē	tumh ẽ c hikã-hẽ	tussē mārã-hē
they beat	sĕð mārã-hē	sō chikã-hē	ōh mārã-hē
I beat (past)	maĩ mä r ĕā	mai chikyā	mai māryā
thou beatest (past)	taĭ mārĕā	taĩ chiky ā	taĩ m āry ā
he beat (past)	tīn ē mārĕā	tēī chikyā	un ē māryā
we beat (past)	āssē māréā	hamhe chikya	asai māryā
you beat (past)	tuss ē mār ēā	tumh e chikya	tusai māryā
they beat (past) tinhē mārĕā	tinhē chikyā	unhē māryā
I shall beat	haŭ m ā rghā, fem. mārghī ; māraṅg	hãõ chikanghã	haũ mārghā
		[[.	St pp. 759-767]

.

e e

S. 4

.

CHAMĚĀLĬ

Chameali is the name of the main Aryan language spoken in the state of Chamba, which lies to the north of the district of Kangra.

In the north-east of the state, in Chamba-Lahul, the language is Tibeto-Burman. In the extreme west of the state, there is a dialect called Bhateali, which is a form of Dogri.

The state of Chamba is mountainous. It is traversed by three snowy ranges, which more or less parallel to one another, cross the state from south-east to north-west. Between the first and second ranges lies the valley of the Ravi and its affluents, containing the three wizarats of Chamba, Bharmaur, and Churah, in which the three dialects, standard Chaměālī, Gādī and Churāhī are spoken respectively. The valleys lying between second or mid and the third or Inner Himalaya ranges is divided into two parts by a lofty spur from the Zanskar range. The tract to the north-west of the spur is called Pangi, and its language is the Pangwālī dialect of Chaměālī.

Position in regard to neighbouring languages: Chamĕāli, while clearly belonging to the Western Pahārī Group of languages, is the most western of its members, and has immediately to its south and south-west dialects connected with Pañjābī and in the north-west connected with Kāshmīrī. The influence of Kāshmīrī dialects, which are connected with 'Piśācha' languages of North-Western India, has been shown especially in the matter of vocabulary again and again in all the Pahārī dialects lying to the west of Kumaunī. And so is the case with Chamĕāli, which is even more evident in its case.

As regards the influence of Pañjābī, this is more accidental, being simply due to geographical proximity. In standard Chamēālī especially, certain changes of consonants such as that of t to ch or ts, which are common in Western Pahārī have disappeared, though they still survive to a limited extent in Gādī, Churāhī and Pangwālī.

Those masculine nouns which in Pañjābī end in -a also end in standard Chamĕālī in -a, whereas in Western Pahārī they generally end in -ō or -ū.

In three of the dialects the postposition of the genitive is the Western Pahāṛī -rō (-ra), and this is, as usual adjectival. Only in Paṅgwālī does it cease to be adjectival, and the North-Western influence being strongest here, the tendency for an r to be elided comes into force, and the $r\bar{o}$ (in its locative form) becomes a simple \bar{e} .

While the genitives of the personal pronouns in standard Chameali and Gadi are mera, tera, etc., all borrowed directly from Panjabi. Churahi has an interesting set of which cerebral consonants are the distinguishing characteristics. Thus, minda, 'my'; asra 'our'. Pangwali true to the Pisacha influence, drops the intervocalic r, and has either $m\tilde{e}$, 'my'; $h\tilde{e}$, 'our', or else shows a relic of the cerebral d and r, by ending the words with a cerebral n. Thus, man, hen, etc.

The conjugation of verbs calls for few remarks. In all the dialects it follows Pahārī in all its typical peculiarities.

[LSI pp. 770-771]

STANDARD CHAMĚĀĻĪ

Nouns: The declension of the Chameali noun in some respects resembles that of Panjabi rather than that of the other Western Pahari languages. In the latter the oblique plural is the same as the oblique singular, but in Chameali there is a special form of the oblique plural, ending, as in Panjabi in-a.

Tadbhava masculine nouns in $-\bar{a}$, form the nominative plural by changing $-\bar{a}$ to \bar{e} . Thus, ghōrā, 'a horse', ghōrē, 'horses'. Feminine nouns ending in consonants, and exceptionally one or two ending in vowels, and $-\bar{\imath}$ or $-\bar{a}$ in the nominative plural. Thus, baihn, 'a sister', baihn $\bar{\imath}$ or baihn \bar{a} , 'sisters'. In the case of all other nouns, the nominative plural is the same as the nominative singular.

As usual in Western Pahārī languages, nouns have an oblique form, and also a separate agent case, often also used as a locative. There is also a separate form for the genitive singular.

The genitive postposition -rā is generally added to the oblique form as in other Western Pahārī languages, but, in the case of masculine nouns ending in a consonant, like ghar, 'a house', in which the oblique form ends in -ā, -ē is substituted for -ā. Thus ghar; obl. sing. gharā; gen. sing. gharē-rā. This does not apply to the plural, in which the -rā is always added to the unchanged oblique form.

The usual postpositions are:

Accusative-dative: jo, 'to'; -tikar, 'for'; -kari, 'for, on account of'.

Ablative: -kachhā, 'from'; -kanē, with, by means of, together with'; -manjhā 'from in'.

Genitive: -rā.

Locative: -bichch, -mañjh, 'in'; -tikar, 'upto'; -par 'on', -kanē,-kachh, 'near'.

The genitive -ra is as usual an adjective.

[LSI pp. 776-778]

Pronouns: The nominative forms or the first two personal pronouns are; $ha\tilde{u}$, 'I'; $as\bar{\imath}$, 'we'; $t\tilde{u}$, 'thou'; $tus\bar{\imath}$, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns $\bar{e}h$, 'this' $s\bar{e}$, \bar{o} 'that' are also used as pronouns of the third person. In most of the Western Pahārī dialects these pronouns have three genders, a masculine, a feminine, and a neuter, but this does not appear to be the case in Chamēālī.

The relative pronoun is $j\bar{e}$ and interrogative pronouns are kun, 'who?', and kai or kya, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 778-780]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The conjugation of the verb substantive approaches more nearly that which we find in Mandeali, rather than that of other Western Pahūrī dialects. There is no trace of the forms with s (sā, ŏssŏ, etc.), which are common further east. The present does not change for person. For all persons of the singular, it is hai, and for all persons of the plural hin. This hai means, 'I am, thou art', and 'he is'.

The past tense is thia or thiya, used exactly like the Hindi tha. The masculine plural is this or thiys, and the feminine singular and plural is thi.

Active verb. The infinitive always ends in -nā; thus, mārnā, 'to strike'.

The present participle is formed by 'adding' $-d\bar{a}$ -($nd\bar{a}$) to the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}rd\bar{a}$, 'striking'; $kh\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$, eating.

The past participle is formed by adding -eā or -yā to the root. Thus, from mārnā, 'to strike', past participle māreā or māryā. The masculine plural is mārē, and the feminine (sing. and plur.) mārī.

As in Manděāli, Chaměāli has a static past participle formed by changing the final-ěa \sim -ya of the past participle to \bar{v} and adding $r\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}r\bar{e}a$ or $m\bar{a}ry\bar{a}$, 'struck', $m\bar{a}r\bar{v}-r\bar{a}$, 'in the state of being struck'.

As in other connected languages, the 2nd person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root. The second person singular is formed by adding -a to the singular. Thus, $m\bar{a}r$, 'strike thou'; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'strike ye'. If the root of the verb ends in -a, it and the termination -a of the 2nd plural coalesce into a single-a; thus, galatā 'say ye', becomes gala.

The old present and present subjunctive is conjugated as follows:

'I strike', 'I may strike', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	marã	marā
2.	mārē	m ā rā
3.	mārō, mārē	maran

In the case of verbs whose roots end in -a, the $-\tilde{a}$ of the first person singular and plural generally coalesces with the a of the root into -a.

The present tense is formed from the present participle, with the present tense of the verb substantive. The participle changes for gender and number, and the verb substantive for number only. Thus, sing, masc, haw marda hai, haw marda hai, 'I strike or am striking'. In this tense the verb substantive is often dropped, so that we have the present participle alone, as in haw marda, 'I strike'.

The future is formed on the same principle as that followed in most Western Pahārī dialects. The syllable -lā is added to the root. Thus, haū mārlā, 'I shall strike'. The masculine plural is mārlē, and the feminine of both numbers mārlī. There is no change for person.

The tenses formed from the past participle need few remarks, being formed exactly as in Hindī.

The passive voice is made, as in Hindi, by conjugating jānā with past participle. Thus, haũ mārčā jāndā hai, 'I am being beaten'.

Causal verbs are formed much as in Hindī. Thus, sunnā, 'to hear', causal sunānā. [LSI pp. 780-784]

GADI

The Gaddis are a pastoral tribe inhabiting the mountainous Bharmaur or Brahmaur Wizarat of the state of Chamba, and the adjoining parts of the Kangra district. The Bharmaur Wizarat is situated in the extreme east of the Chamba state. Further east lies Kulu, the language of which is Kului. To the south lies Kangra, where Kāngri is spoken. To the north lies Lahaul, the language of which is Tibeto-Burman.

Gādī is a form of Chamēaļī, but, as might be expected, it shows traces of the influence of Kuļuī and of Kāngrī. It also possesses several independent features. One of them is the common pronunciation of the consonant s as kh, sounding something like the ch in the word 'lock' or in the German 'act'. Thus, the word sunnā, 'to hear', becomes khunnā; das 'ten', becomes dakh. It will be remembered that in other Western Pahārī dialects this s retains its proper sound like that of the ss in 'session', and does not become s as in Hindī. On the other hand in Kāshmīrī and its related languages s becomes h, and we may fairly reckon kh as an intermediate stage in the process.

The conjugation of verbs is often peculiar. Most noteworthy is the frequency of the termination -chh added to the roots of many verbs. Thus, the verb gāhṇā, 'to go', make gachnā (compare the Kāshmīrī gatzha, and the Sanskrit gachchhāmi), 'I may go'.

[LSI p. 792]

Pronunciation. There are several curious changes of vowels. The vowel a becomes u in $kum\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, to work, to earn', and it becomes i in kittha 'together'. The vowel i becomes u in $muln\bar{a}$, 'to be met', and \bar{o} becomes a in $baln\bar{a}$, 'to say'. Sometimes, a sonant aspirate loses its aspiration, as in $bandn\bar{a}$, 'to divide'. This is the regular rule in Kāshmīrī and other related languages.

[LSI pp. 795-796]

Nouns. The declension of the Gādī noun is more like that of Mandēālī than that of Chamēalī, although it also has points in common with the latter. The main point in which it differs from Chamēalī is that, as in Mandēālī and most other Western Pahārī dialects, the oblique form of the plural is the same as that of the singular, instead of having the Chamēālī ending-ā.

The nominative plural is generally the same as the nominative singular. The only exceptions are tadbhava masculine nouns in -a like $gh\bar{\sigma}_{i}a$, 'a horse', which change the $-\tilde{a}$ to $-\bar{e}$; feminine nouns ending in consonants like $bh\bar{e}n$ or $b\bar{e}hn$, 'a sister', which add -i; and feminine nouns in $-\bar{u}$, like $dh\bar{v}n$, 'a daughter', which add $-\bar{a}$.

Besides the oblique, there are three organic cases, agent, locative and vocative.

The usual postpositions are:

Acc.-dat. : -jo, -bo, -go, 'to' or 'for'.

Instr. : -seite, 'with (by means of)'.

Abl.: $-tha\tilde{u}$, $-tha\tilde{u}$, 'from'; $-ma\tilde{n}jh\tilde{u}$, 'from in', $-sett\tilde{e}$, 'with (together with)'.

Gen .: -ra, 'of'.

Loc.: -manjh. -ma, -mah, 'in'; -malle, 'near (= pas)'.

Of the above -rā is, as usual, an adjective.

[LSI pp. 796-797]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the first two personal pronouns are; aũ, mũ, aũ, 'I'; assē,; assi, assũ, 'we'; tū, 'thou'; tussē, tussā, 'you'. As in Kāṅgṛī Pañjābī they have special forms for the dative singular, which are, mũ, mũhũ, munjō, minjō, māgō and tujjō, tāgō.

The demonstrative pronouns ih 'this'; uh, oh, 'that' are also used as pronouns of the third person.

The relative pronoun is $j\bar{e}$, $j\bar{o}$, 'who, which, what', and correlative pronoun is $s\bar{o}$, 'that, he, she, it'. which is also used as a definite demonstrative and as a pronoun of the 3rd person. The interrogative pronouns are, kun, 'who?, which?' and $ki\bar{a}$, $ky\bar{a}$ 'what?'. [LSI pp. 797-799]

Verbs. Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense of the verb substantive is conjugated as follows:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$h\widetilde{u}$, ha	$h \widetilde{m{u}}, \ han$
2.	haī, hā	hin, han
3.	ha	hin, han

The past tense does not change for person. Its masculine singular is $th\bar{u}$, and its masculine plural is $th\bar{v}$. The feminine of both numbers is $th\bar{t}$.

Active verb. Several of the most common verbs in Gadi have forms which are strange to other Indo-Aryan languages. Such are, balnā, 'to say', bēblnā, 'to sit', gāhnā, 'to go', mā, 'to come'.

The infinitive is formed by adding $-n\bar{a}$ ($-n\bar{a}$) to the root; thus, $b\bar{e}khn\bar{a}$, 'to sit'.

The present participle has three forms. One is formed, as in Chamëali, by adding -da (-nda) to the root. Thus, marda, 'striking'. Another adds -anda, to the root, as in maranda, 'striking'. The third adds $-n\tilde{\eta}$, as in $marn\tilde{u}$, 'striking'.

The past participle is formed, as in Kuļuī, by adding $-\bar{u}$ to the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\bar{u}$, 'struck'. Sometimes, however, and especially in the formation of the passive, the Chamčalī form in $-\bar{e}\bar{a} \sim -y\bar{a}$ is used. Thus, $m\bar{a}ry\bar{a}$ $g\bar{a}hn\bar{a}$, 'to be struck'.

As usual the second person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root, and the second person plural adds -a. Thus, mār, 'strike thou'; mārā, 'strike ye'.

The old present and present conjunctive is thus conjugated:

'I strike, I shall strike', etc.

Sing. Plur.

1. mārũ, mārã mārũ, mārã

2. mārẽ māran, mārā

3. mārā māran

The future is formed by adding -lā to the old present. The -la changes for gender and number, and there is a tendency to drop the terminations of the old present. Thus:

'I shall strike', etc.

Sing			Plur.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	mārūlā, mārlā	mārlī	marālē, m a rlē	mārlī
2.	m ā rlā	mārlī	mārlē	$m\bar{a}rl\bar{\imath}$
3.	mārlā	märlī	mārlē	mārlī

It will be seen that $m \sqrt[3]{r} l \tilde{a}$ ($-l\tilde{e}$, $-l\tilde{t}$) can be used for all three persons. The first is the only person that retains the old terminations.

For the present, the present participle in $-d\bar{a}$ or -anda is used. The present participle in $-n\bar{u}$ is also employed, but only in the first and second persons.

The tenses formed from the past participle are made exactly as in Hindi.

The passive voice is made by conjugating the Chameali past participle in $-\bar{e}a \sim -y\bar{a}$ with $g\bar{a}hn\bar{a}$. Thus, $a\bar{u}$ marya $g\bar{a}hnd\bar{a}$, 'I am being beaten'. Sometimes we come across the passive formed with $-\bar{\imath}$, as in other Western Pahari dialects. Thus, pakarina, 'to be seized'. [LSI pp. 799-803]

CHUR AHI

Churāhī is spoken in Churah wizarat of Chamba state. It is much more closely connected with standard Chamĕalī than is Gādī. [LSI p. 817]

Pronunciation. There is a tendency to drop aspiration, especially after sonant mutes. Thus, for Hindi $bh\bar{\imath}$ we usually have $b\bar{\imath}$. Before another consonant r is usually elided. Thus, $m\bar{a}rn\bar{a}$, to strike', becomes $m\bar{a}n\bar{a}$. The same elision of r has been noticed in the Rathi dialect of Garhwäli. In the Piśācha

languages r is very frequently elided. On the other hand r, sometimes becomes r or d. This is most prominent in the case of the genitives of the personal pronouns, where we have asra, 'our'; tuara, 'your'; minda, 'my'; and tinda, 'thy'. A similar change occurs in Kafir Piśācha languages. In Gadī we have come across instances of the occasional insertion of r, where it is not expected, and the same occurs in Churāhī, Thus, we have bhrukhna, 'hungry'; 5ikhrna, 'to learn'. R shows a tendency to become l, as in $kul\bar{l}$, 'a girl', the Chamēālī $kur\bar{l}$ and Kāshmīri $k\bar{l}ru$.

[LSI pp. 821-822]

Nouns. The principal divergence from the standard dialect lies in the declension of masculine nouns ending in a consonant. In standard Chameali these make their oblique forms by adding -a, as in ghara. Gadi follows the same rule. Both dialects, however, change the -a to -ē in the genitive. Thus, gharē-rā. Churāhī, on the other hand, has -ē throughout for the oblique form.

The most common postpositions are:

Accusative-Dative: -nī, 'to'; rē-tēī, 'for'.

Ablative,: -kanā, -kachchhā, 'from'; -mañjhā,

'from, among'; $-l\bar{a}$, 'with, by means of' $-kan\bar{e}$, $-kin\bar{e}$, $\sim -ken\bar{e}$, and $-set\bar{e}$, 'with,

together with'.

Genitive: $-r\bar{a} \sim -r\bar{o}$.

Locative: -majh, -mah, 'in'; -pran, 'upon.

[LSI pp. 822-823]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $a\tilde{u}$, $hc\tilde{u}$; 'I': $\bar{a}ss\bar{e}$, $ah\bar{e}$, 'we'; $t\bar{u}$, 'thou'; $t\bar{u}\bar{e}$, $tuh\bar{e}$, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns, ∂h , 'this', and ∂h , 'that', are also used as pronouns of the third person. Their oblique forms have separate words for the feminine singular, viz., ∂h 's ∂h 's ∂h 'that', are also used as pronouns of the third person. Their oblique forms have separate words for the feminine singular, viz., ∂h 's ∂h 's ∂h 's ∂h 'that', are also used only as a substantive.

The relative and correlative pronouns are je, 'who', and se, 'that'. The interrogative pronouns are kanu, 'who?', and kutu or kitu, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 823-824]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. Several forms of the present tense of the verb substantive are met with. We have a, ātē, aī, ātē. There is a feminine form āitī or ātī also.

The past tense is thia, thea or thia, pl. this or this; fem. (sg. and pl.) thi. A peculiar form this for the feminine is also reported to occur.

Active verb. The infinitive ends in $-n\bar{a}$ $(-n\bar{a})$ or $-n\bar{u}$ $(-n\bar{u})$, the latter form being more common. A weak infinitive formed by dropping the final vowel is sometimes found. Thus, maran lagga, 'he began to die'.

The present participle is formed by adding -ta (-ntā) to the root. Thus, from jhannā, 'to fall', jhantā, 'falling'. The Chamēāļī forms in -dā are also used.

The past participle is formed by adding -¿ā or -yā to the root. Thus, mārċā or māryā, 'struck'. Sometimes only -a is added, so that we also have mārā. Again, the Kuļuī form in -ū, instead of -ā is also common, as mārū.

As in other Chamba dialects and in Mandi there is a static participle formed by changing the $-\delta a \sim -ya$ of the past participle into δra . Thus, $mar\delta a$, 'struck', $mar\delta ra$, 'in the state of having been struck'.

The second person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root, the plural is formed by adding $-\bar{a}$. Thus, mar, 'strike thou'; $mar\bar{a}$, 'strike ye'.

The present definite is formed by adding the verb substantive to the present participle, as in Hindi, but the verb substantive may either precede or follow the participle. Thus, marta or mata, 'striking'; an mata a or an a mata, 'I am striking'.

The future in most Pahīrī dialects is formed by adding -lā (-lē, -lī) to the root or to the old present. Churāhī uses the same suffix, added to the root, and also employs another suffix -mā,

The relative and correlative pronouns are $j\bar{\epsilon}$, 'who', and $s\bar{\epsilon}$, 'that'. The interrogative pronouns are $kan\bar{u}$, 'who?', and $kut\bar{u}$ or $kit\bar{u}$, 'what?'. [LSI pp. 823-824]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. Several forms of the present tense of the verb substantive are met with. We have a, ātē, aī, ātē. There is a feminine form āitī or ātī also.

The past tense is thia, thea or thia, pl. thie or this; fem. (sg. and pl.) thi. A peculiar form thie for the feminine is also reported to occur.

Active verb. The infinitive ends in $-n\bar{a}$ $(-n\bar{a})$ or $-n\bar{u}$ $(-n\bar{u})$, the latter form being more common. A weak infinitive formed by dropping the final vowel is sometimes found. Thus, maran lagga, 'he began to die'.

The present participle is formed by adding -ta ($-nt\bar{a}$) to the root. Thus, from $jharn\bar{u}$, 'to fall', $jhart\bar{a}$, 'falling'. The Chaméāļī forms in $-d\bar{a}$ are also used.

The past participle is formed by adding -¿ā or -yā to the root. Thus mār¿ā or māryā, 'struck'. Sometimes only -a is added, so that we also have mārā. Again, the Kuļuī form in -ū, instead of -ā is also common, as mārū.

As in other Chamba dialects and in Mandi there is a static participle formed by changing the $-\delta a \sim -ya$ of the past participle into $\delta r\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\delta a$, 'struck', $m\bar{a}r\delta r\bar{a}$, 'in the state of having been struck'.

The second person singular of the imperative is the same in form as the root, the plural is formed by adding $-\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}r$, 'strike thou'; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'strike ye'.

The present definite is formed by adding the verb substantive to the present participle, as in Hindl, but the verb substantive may either precede or follow the participle. Thus, marta or mata, 'striking'; an mata a or an a mata, 'I am striking'.

The future in most Pahīrī dialects is formed by adding $-l\bar{a}$ ($-l\bar{e}$, $-l\bar{i}$) to the root or to the old present. Churāhī uses the same suffix, added to the root, and also employs another suffix $-m\bar{a}$,

herna, 'to see'; bota, for bolta, 'I am saying'. In the Pisacha languages of the north-west frontier r or r between two vowels is often dropped, and the same is the case here. Thus, $k\bar{u}i$, or $k\bar{u}ri$, 'a girl'; $dz\bar{v}i$ (for $j\bar{v}ri$) 'with'. [LSI pp. 848-849]

Nouns. The declension of nouns presents some variation from standard Chameali.

Masculine tadbhava nouns in -a can also end in -a, so that we have chhēla, 'a kid'; dittā or dittu, 'given'.

Such nouns, as usual, form their nominative plural by changing -a to -z, as in ghorz, 'horses'.

Similarly the oblique form singular and plural is ghōre. Other masculine nouns do not change in the oblique form. The agent genitive and locative cases of masculine nouns, whether singular or plural are formed by adding -ē. Thus, gih, 'a house', gihe, 'by a house or houses, of a house or houses, or in a house or houses'. Feminine nouns are differently declined. The genitive singular and plural optionally adds -a. Nouns ending in -ī do not otherwise change, but those ending in a consonant add -ī in every case except the genitive, and the nominative singular.

The usual postpositions are:

Accusative -dative: -dī, -jē, 'to'; -dōstī, 'for'.

Ablative: -kanā, -kiā, 'from'; -kē, -kanē, 'with, together with'; -lāī, 'with, by means of'.

Locative: -bichch, in'; gutth, 'on'; -antar, 'in'.

The genitive in -ē is immutable. The final -ē of the genitive and locative is often dropped. [LSI pp. 849-850]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; a\vec{u}, 'I'; as, \vec{a}s, as\vec{v}; t\vec{u}, 'thou'; tus, t\vec{u}h 'you'. The genitive forms, as in the case of substantives, are immutable.

The demonstrative pronouns, $\bar{e}h$, 'this', and $\bar{o}h$, 'that', are also used as pronouns of the third person. The relative pronoun is $j\bar{e}$ and correlative pronoun is $s\bar{e}$.

The interrogative pronouns are kas, 'who?' and $k\bar{\imath}$, 'what?'.

[LSI pp. 850-851]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The foundation of the present tense is asā or asū, 'am, art, is'. This is not conjugated for person, but changes for gender and number, exactly like Hindi thā, 'was'. Its masculine plural is asē, and its feminine singular and plural is asī.

The initial a may be dropped, so that we also have sa, $s\bar{e}$ and $s\bar{i}$; or again, the final vowel may be dropped, so that we can have as, immutable, for both genders and both numbers.

Another form of this present tense is hanā or hanā which is treated exactly like asā, having a masculine plural hanē, and a feminine singular and plural hanā. Cf. Shinā (Piśācha) hanō, 'he is'.

Finally for the third person singular or plural, we can have ahi, 'is' or 'are'. This does not change for gender.

The past tense is thiyā or thyā, 'was'. This is treated exactly like the Hindī thā, having a masculine plural thiyē or the and feminine singular and plural thī. It does not change for person.

Active verb. The infinitive is formed by adding -a (-na) or -na (-na) to the root; thus, sunna, 'to hear'. A weak form of the infinitive ending in -n (-n) is also found; thus, maran, 'to strike'.

The present participle is formed by adding $-t\bar{a}$ (masc. plural $-t\bar{e}$; fem. sing. and plur. $-t\bar{\imath}$) to the root, before which r is usually elided. Thus, $bist\bar{a}$, 'sitting'; $m\bar{a}rt\bar{a}$, or more usually, $m\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, 'striking'. If the root ends in a vowel, this is nasalised before the $-t\bar{a}$ of the present participle; thus $bh\bar{u}t\bar{a}$, 'becoming'.

The past participle is formed by adding -a or $-\bar{u}$ to the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, or $m\bar{a}r\bar{u}$, 'struck'.

As in other Chameali dialects, there is a static past participle formed by changing the final \bar{a} of the past participle to $\bar{o}r$ or $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\bar{o}r$ or $m\bar{a}r\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, in the state of having been struck.

The imperative second person singular is the same in form as the root. The second person plural adds \bar{a} . Thus, $bi\bar{s}$, sit there'; $bi\bar{s}\bar{a}$ 'sit ye'.

The present, both definite and indefinite, is simply the present participle changing for gender and number, but not for person. Thus, an bista, 'I sit, am sitting', feminine an bista, and so for all persons of the singular. The plural is as bista (fem. bista), 'we sit or are sitting'.

The future is formed by adding -al to the root. Thus, bi\$al, 'I, thou, or he will sit'. It does not change for person but does change for gender and number. The masculine plural is bi\$il, and the feminine for both numbers is bi\$il. If the root ends in a vowel, the termination is -l simply.

The tenses formed from the past participle call for few remarks. They are formed as in Chamĕāļī and Hindī.

The passive voice is formed with the past participle, and ghēnā, 'to go'. Thus, aũ mārā ghētā, 'I am being struck'.

[LSI pp. 851-854]

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

English	Chaměaļī	Gadī or Bharamaurī
one	ikk	ak
two	$d\bar{o}$	duī
three	trai	trai
four	chaur	chaur, chour
hand	hatth	batth
foot	pair	paraŗ
head	sar	śir
a father	bab	bab
of a father	babbē-rā	babā-rā, babē-rā
to a father	babbā-jō	babā-jō
two fathers	dō babb	dui bab
I am	haŭ hai	aữ hữ, hã
thou art	t u hai	tū haĭ, hā
he is	ō hai	ōh hā
we are	asī hin	assē h ū , bau
you are	tusī hin	tussē hin, hau
they are	ō hin	ōh hin, hau
I was	haũ thiyā	aŭ thū
thou wast	t ū thiyā	tu thu
he was	ō thiyā	ơh thũ
we were	asī thiyē	assę̃ thie
you were	tusī thiyē	tussē thie
they were	ō thiyē	ōh thĩ ẽ
I shall be	haŭ holā	aŭ bhola, bhuchhñla

IN THE CHAMEALI DIALECTS

Churahī	Pangwali
ak, ikk	yak, ik
dō, d ōī	dui, do
trē, trai	tlai
chour	chaur
hatth, hatt	hatth
paīr, pēŗ	khūr, khūr
śir	magar, kupāļ
babb	bau
babbē-ra	bauē
babbā-nī, babbē-nī	bau-jē
dō babb	dūī bau
aŭ a	aŭ asā, sā, as
tu a, atē	tū asā, sā, as
ōā, ātē	sē asā, sā, as, ahi
ahē atē	as asē, sē, as
tuhē ātē	tus asē, sē, as
o ate	sē asē, sē, as, ahi
aũ thĕa	aŭ thyā
tu thĕa	t u t hyā
o thĕā	s ë thy ä
ahē thič	as thyā
tuhē thié	tus thyē
o thië	s ē thyē
aũ bhōmā	aŭ bh öl
	•

English	Chaměāļī	Gādī or Bharamaurī
I beat	haŭ mārdā	aŭ mārdā, mārandā, m ārnī
thou beatest	t u mārd ā	tū mārdā, mārandā, mārnē
he beats	ō mārdā	õh märdä, märanda
we beat	asī mārdē	assē mārdē, marandē, mārnīī
you beat	tusi märdē	tusse marde, marande, marnű
they beat	ō mārdē	õh märdē, märandē
I beat (past)	mai mārēa	mēī mārū
thou beatest (past)	tai mārēā	taī mārū
he beat (past)	uni mārĕā	uni mārū
we beat (past)	a sā̃ mārĕā	assē mārū
you beat (past)	tusã mārĕā	tussē mārū
they beat (past)	unhã mārĕā	üly ē mārū
I shall beat	haŭ m arla	aŭ mārlā, mār ū lā

Churāhī	Pangwali
aŭ mārtā, mārtā ā, ā mārtā	aŭ kuţţta
tū mārtā, mārtā ā, a mārtā	tīī kuṭṭṭā
ō mārtā, mārtā ā, ā mārtā	sē kutttā
ahē mārtē, mārtātē, ātē mārtē	as kutttē
tuhē mārtē, mārtātē, ātē mārtē	tus kuttte
o mārtē, mārtātē, atē mārtē	sē kutttē
mį mārēa	maï kuţţtā
tī mārēā	tal kuţţtā
uni mārēa	tění kuttta
ahé mārēa	as kuţţā
tuhē māréa	tus kutta
unā mārča	těnhî kuttā
aŭ māmmā	aŭ kuttãl. [LSt pp. 862-876]

AA A THE STATE OF THE NAME OF

Andrew Commencer (1922) And Alexander (1922)

1 William Control of the Control of

4.8 1 4.1

and the second s

and the second of the second o

THE BHADRAWAH GROUP

The Bhadrawāh group includes three dialects viz., Bhadrawāhī Bhaļēsī and Pāḍarī. Bhadrawāhī and Bhaļēsī are both spoken in Bhadrawāh, a Jagir lying within Kashmir territory, immediately to the north-west of Chamba state, and south of the Chenab river. Pāḍarī is spoken in Padar, a mountainous portion of the Kashmir district of Ūdhampur. Padar, separated from Bhales by a valley only six or seven miles across, lies north of and contiguous to Pangi. It occupies the valley of the Chenab from the Pangi frontier for about thirty miles down to the valley of Siri, where Kastawār begins.

Pangwāļī dialect for questions of geographical convenience. has been classed as a dialect of Chamĕāļī, although it is a mixed language and in many particulars agrees with the dialects of Bhadrawāh group, in which Western Pahārī is merging into Kāshmīrī. It illustrates the first stage of merging, the Kāshmīrī influence becoming stronger as we get into Bhadrawāh. The three dialects are separately described below. Here attention to only those points which they have in common is being drawn.

In the pronunciation of the vowels they all closely follow Kāshmīrī. Most marked is the tendency to epenthetic change which is a prominent feature of that language. Thus, in Bhadrawāhī we have hāthī, 'an elephant', oblique form haithē; in Bhalēsī, wī, 'come thou', ēīa, 'come ye'; in Pādarī ghūrī, 'a mare', ghūrēr, 'of a mare'.

In Pādarī the vowel y is often inserted before i or \bar{e} as in Kāshmīrī. Thus, pyitth, 'the back'; $dyitt\bar{v}$, for ditta, 'given'.

In Bhadrawāh group we find that bhr of Pangwāli often becomes dhl. This is due to Tibeto-Burman influence, as in Western Tibetan br is pronounced dr in Ladakhi and d in Lahul dialect. Thus, in Bhadrawāhi we have $dhlukkh\bar{o}$, 'hungry'; in Bhalēsi $dhl\bar{e}dd$, 'a sheep'. Sometimes b alone becomes dl, as in

PAHARI-17

Bhadrawāhī banhdnū, Pāḍarī dland. 'to bind'. Again we find tr often becoming tl or tl, as in tlāī or trāī (Bhadrawāhī), tlaē (Pāḍarī) 'three'.

As is usual in the neighbouring languages ch frequently becomes ts and i becomes z or dz. Thus, in Bhadrawāhī, we have $ts\bar{u}ur$, 'four'; $tsarn\bar{u}$, 'to graze'; manz, 'in'.

The close connection between the Bhadrawah group, Pangwali and Kashmiri is further illustrated from the following vocabulary of a few selected words:

English	Pangwāļī	Bhadrawāhī	Bhaļēsī	Paḍarī
bird	pakhr u	tsarðllī	m.normapy	põkkhar
egg	andhëru	thūl	, sa nary	thul
girl	$kar{u}ar{\imath}$	kūī, koī	kītī	koi
moon	jōsan	chānaņī		tsainne
sister	dēddī, bhain	baihn, haihn	hinyi	bhēņ
six	$chh\bar{e}$	śah	\underline{tsai}	$sh\check{e}h$
hundred	sau	śauū	sau	hath
			[LSI	pp. 881-887]

BHADRAWĀHĪ AND BHAĻĒSĪ

These two dialects are closely connected and may conveniently be considered together. The principal difference between the two is that Bhalesi is fond of dropping an r between two vowels. Thus the genitive singular of ghōrā, 'a horse', is ghōrē-rū in Bhadrawāhi and ghōrāū in Bhalēsi. [LSI p. 888]

Nouns. The tadbhava nouns in \bar{u} , like ghōr \bar{u} , 'a horse', may optionally end in -a, -au or - \bar{v} . Thus, ghōr \bar{u} , ghōrau or ghōr \bar{v} . The same is true for adjectives, and for infinitive and participles of verbs.

The nominative plural of tadbhava masculine nouns ending in -u (- \bar{a} , -au, or - \bar{v}) is formed by adding - \bar{e} ; thus, $gho_{\bar{v}}\bar{u}$, nom. pl. $gh\bar{v}_{\bar{v}}\bar{e}$. Other masculine nouns remain unchanged. Feminine nouns ending in - \bar{i} form their nom. plur, by adding - \bar{a} in Bhadrawāhī and - \bar{a} in Bhalēsī. Thus, from $k\bar{u}\bar{i}$, 'a daughter' we have $k\bar{u}\bar{i}\bar{a}$ in Bhadrawāhī and $ku\bar{i}\bar{a}$ in Bhalēsī. Feminine nouns ending in a consonant remain immutable in Bhalēsī and add - \bar{i} in Bhadrawāhī.

Cases are usually formed by adding suffixes or postpositions to the oblique form. In some cases oblique form itself is used to indicate the case relation. The genitive pastpositions $-r\bar{u}$, $-k\bar{e}r\bar{u}$ (Bhadrawāhi) and $-\bar{e}\bar{u}$, $-k\bar{e}\bar{u}$ (Bhaļēsi) are as usual adjectives.

[LSI pp. 888-890]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $a\tilde{u}$, 'I'; as, 'we'; $t\bar{u}$, 'thou'; tus, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns are; ih, ēh (Bhad.) ēh (Bhal.) 'this'; ōh, that'. The relative and correlative pronouns are; zē, zai (Bhad.). dzē (Bhal.) 'who, which'; tē, sē, tai (Bhad.) tē, sē (Bhal.) 'that'.

The interrogative pronouns are; kaun (Bhad.), kann (Bhal.), 'who?', kun (Bhad.) kī, kē (Bhal.) 'what?'. [LSI pp. 891-893]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive: The present tense is conjugated as follows:

		Bha dra wāhī	Bhaļēsī
		'I am', etc.	
Sing.	1.	aĩ	$ah\overline{\overline{u}}, h\overline{\overline{u}}$
	2.	äs	ahas, has,
	3.	āhē, ai, aĕ	ahā, hā
Plur.	1.	ahm	aham, ham
	2.	ahth	ahth, hath
	3.	ahn, an	ahan

The past tense is masc. thīū (Bhaļ thiū), pl. thīē (Bhaļ. thiē); (Bhad.) fem. sing. and plur. thī; (Bhaļ.) fem. sing. thē, plur. thī.

As usual this does not change for person.

Active verb. The infinitive is formed by adding $-n\overline{u}$ to the root in both the dialects; thus, $kutn\overline{u}$, 'to strike'.

The present and past participles are formed by adding -tu and u to the root in both the dialects; thus kuttu, 'striking' and kuttu, 'struck'.

The static past participle is formed by adding $-\bar{\sigma}r\bar{\sigma}$ (Bhad.), $-\bar{u}\bar{\sigma}$ (Bhal.) to the root; thus, $kutt\bar{\sigma}r\bar{\sigma}$, $kutt\bar{u}\bar{\sigma}$, 'in the state of being struck'.

In Bhalēsī the feminines of the present and past participles are slightly irregular. In the singular they change the final $-\bar{u}$ ($-\bar{a}$, -au or $-\bar{o}$) to $-\bar{e}$, not to $-\bar{\imath}$. Thus, $kutt\bar{e}$. In the plural they take $-\bar{\imath}$ as usual. Thus, $kutt\bar{\imath}$.

The imperative in both dialects is in the singular the same as the root and the plural adds $-\bar{a}$. Thus, kut, 'strike thou'; $kutt\bar{a}$ (for $kut\bar{a}$) 'strike ye'.

The old present and present subjunctive is conjugated as follows. In Bhadrawāhi there is a special feminine form in the singular.

	Bhadrawāhī		Bhalēs $\bar\imath$
	Masc.	Fem.	
Sing.			
1.	kuttau ~ kuttī	kuţţī	kuţţã
2.	kuţţas	same	kuţţas
3.	kuţţē	same	kuţţō
Plur.			
1.	kuţţam	same as masc.	kuţţam
2.	kuttath, kuttat	,,	kuttath
3.	kuttan	9.59	kuţţan

The future tense changes for gender. Bhalesī follows Pādrī in this tense, rather than Bhadrawāhī. It is conjugated as follows:

Bhadrawāhī			$Bhalar{e}sar{\imath}$	
Sing.				
1.	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
			kuţţau, kuţţĕn	kuţţ u n
2.	kuţalo	kuţailai	kuţţal	kuttul
			kuttal ·	$kuț t \bar{u} l$
	Bhadrawāhī		Bhaļēsī	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Plur.				
1.	kuțmale kuțmē	kuţmailai	kutmal	ku ţmū l
2.	kuṭalē, kuṭlē	kuṭailai	kuttal	kuţţūl
3.	kuṭalē, kuṭlē	kuṭailai	kuţţau	kuţ ṭū n

The present is formed by adding personal terminations to the present participles. It changes for gender, and it will be observed that in the Bhadrawāhī feminine t is changed to ch, closely resembling the common change of t to ts in Kāshmīrī feminines.

Bhadrawā $har{\imath}$		ันนี	$Bhal ar{e}s i$	
	Masc.	Fem-	Masc.	Fem.
Sing.				
1.	kuţtã	kuţchã	kuţtu (-tau, -to)	kuţtē
2.	kuţtã	kuṭchã	kuṭtus (-tŏs)	kuţtē
3.	ku!tē	kuţchē	kuṭtū (-tau, -tō)	kuțtē
Plur.				
1.	kuţtam	k u tcham	kuṭtam	kuttam
2.	kuttath	kutchath .	kuttath	kuttath
3.	kuţtaņ	kuţchaņ	kuţtē	kuţtī

The tenses formed from the past participle call for no remarks. They are built on the usual lines, transitive verbs being constructed passively, agreeing in gender and number with the object having the subject in the case of the agent.

[LSI pp. 893-899]

PADARI

Pādarī agrees with Kāshmiri more closely than do the two others of the group.

Due to the lack of sufficient material available the following account of the dialect must be taken with considerable reserve.

[LSI pp. 903]

Pronunciation. Epenthesis is very common—almost as common as in Kashmīri—and the whole system of conjugation is full of it, but for want of sufficient material no general rules for these changes can be laid.

Pādarī has a marked tendency to drop final vowels of terminations. Thus, the -rā of the Bhadrawāhī genitive becomes a simple -r, and -l, the sign of the ablative, represents an original -lē. [LSI pp. 903-904]

Nouns. Cases are usually indicated by adding suffixes and postpositions to the nominative or oblique form. The agentive case is identical with the oblique form. The ablative is formed by adding -l in the singular and -kal in the plural. The genitive adds -ar in the singular and -kar in the plural. Thus . kvī, 'a girl', genitive, kūyar, (sing.), kūī-kar (plur.). The plural of the dative is the same as the oblique form. The singular adds -as: thus, bhēn, 'a sister', dative, bhēnas.

[LSI pp. 904-905]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $a\tilde{u}$, 'I'; as, 'we'; tn, 'thou'; tus, 'you'. The genitive forms are; miun, $m\bar{e}n$ 'mine', tiun, $t\bar{e}n$, 'our' hiun, $h\bar{e}n$ 'thine', $t\bar{o}hn$, tun, 'your'.

The demonstrative pronoun is $\bar{e}h$, 'this'. The relative and correlative pronouns are $dz\bar{e}$, 'who, which', and $s\bar{e}$, 'that'. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{a}n\bar{h}$, 'who?' and $k\bar{i}$, 'what?'. The word for 'own', equivalent to the Hindi apna, is ampar, fem. amper.

[LSI pp. 905-906]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is han^a or hainā, plural han^a hanē, hinē or haina. This is masculine, the corresponding feminine form being hinⁱ or haini for both numbers. This tense does not change for person.

The past tense is:

	Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	the ^a .	thēč
Fem.	$th { ilde \imath}$	thi

It does not change for person.

Active verb. The infinitive is formed by adding -n (-an) to the root; $k\delta tan_{\bullet}$ to strike'.

The present participle is formed by adding -na to the root; thus, kōtna, 'striking'.

The past participle is formed by adding -ta to the root; thus $k\delta tta$. 'beaten'.

As in Chaměāļī, and other Western Pahārī dialects, there is a static past participle formed by changing the final a of the past participle to $\bar{o}r$ or aur; thus $k\bar{o}t\bar{o}r$, 'in the state of having been struck'.

The imperative 2nd sing, is the same in form as the root, the plural adding -ai; thus, $k\delta t$, 'strike thou'; $k\delta tai$, 'strike ye'.

The future has the 2nd and third person identical and changes for gender. It is conjugated as follows:

'I shall strike', etc.

Sing.		Plur.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
1.	kötul, kütal	kutal	köţul, kūţal	k ū t al
2 & 3.	kčţal	kõčtěl	kötnal	kutně ⁱ l ⁱ

When the root of the verb ends in a consonant, the first person is generally based on the form $k \delta t u l$, with various epenthetic changes. If the root ends in a vowel, the first person usually, but not always, ends in a nasal $-\tilde{u}$.

The present tense, which is also used as past conditional, is simply the present participle, changing for gender and number, but not for person. Thus, an kötna, 'I (masc.) strike, (if) I had struck, I should have struck (if)'. The masc. plur. is kötne, and the fem. sing. and plur, kö tnī.

The past tense is simply the past participle.

[LSI pp. 906-910]

PAHARI-18

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES FOR THE BHADRAWĀH GROUP

English	Bhadrawahī	P āḍarī
one	ak	yak
two	$d\overline{u}$	duî
three	tlai, trai	tlā ē
four	tsüür, tsōur	tsōur _
hand	hatth	hat
foot	pãō	khur
head	dŏg	magir
a father	bau	bāb
of a father	bauĕ-rū	babbar
to a father	bauē-jō	babbas
two fathers	d u i bau	dāī bāb
I am	aũ ล _{ิโ}	aũ han ^a , fem. hin¹
thou art	tū ās, as	tū han*, fem. hini
he is	ōh āhē, ai	sẽ hana, fem. hin¹
we are	as āhm	as han ^a , hin ^ĕ , han ^ĕ , fem. hin ⁱ
you are	tus āhth, āth	tus han ^a , hinĕ, hanĕ, fem. hin¹
they are	ព្យល់្កាធ	tahna han ^a , hin ^ĕ , hane, <i>fem</i> , hin ⁱ
I was	aũ thiố (fem. thi)	aữ th \bar{e}^a , fem. thì
thou wast	tu thio	$t\bar{u}$ thea, $fem.$ thi
he was	ōh thiô	sẽ th ể^a , fem. thì

English	Bhadrawāhī	Pāḍarî
we were	as thie (fem. thi)	as th ē ĕ, fem. thī
you were	tus thiē	tus thē ^ĕ , fem. thī
they were	unhā thiē	$t\bar{a}hn^a th\bar{e}^{\widetilde{e}}$, $fem. thi$
I shall be	aŭ bhōlō	aũ
I beat	aũ kuṭtã	aũ]
thou beatest	ta kuțtã	tū } kŏṭna, fem. kŏĕṭnī
he beats	ōh kuṭtē	sĕĴ
we beat	as kuţtam	as]
you beat	tus kuṭṭath, kuṭṭat	tus \ kŏtnĕ fem.
they beat	unha kuttan	tāhņa j
I beat (past)	mī kuttū, kuttō	maĩ]
thou beatest (pass	t) tai kuṭṭū, kuṭṭō	taĭ kŏta, fem.
he beat (past)	uṇi kuṭṭō	tēīnì
we beat (past)	asēī kuţţō	āsē
you beat (past)	tusej kutto	tusē¦ kōtā, fem. I kŏ ^ĕ tī
they beat (past)	uņ ē į kuttō	taiņhē J
I shall beat	aŭ kuțalō	aŭ kūțal, fem. kūțal
		[LSI pp. 915-923]

GUJURI

Gujurs living in the hills north of the Panjab, speak a language closely allied to Rājasthānī. The resemblance of Gujurī to Mēwārī is very striking. But still closer is the resemblance of Gujurī to the Mēwātī dialect of Rājasthānī spoken in Alwar, some distance to the north of Mewar. It is curious that Gujurī agrees with both Mēwātī and with Mēwārī much more closely than with the intervening Jaipurī. On the whole, it follows Mēwātī very systematically, only differing from it, and agreeing with Mēwārī in regard to one or two points of detail. As compared to Mēwātī it presents a more archaic appearance, preserving many words in a stage of development older than that which we find in Mēwātī. Thus:

Gujurī	Mēwātī
satt, 'seven'	sat
hā, 'I'	$ma\tilde{\imath}$
trē, 'three'	$t \bar{\imath} n$

The Mēwātī sat must have passed through the Gujurī form satt before becoming fixed as we have it now. In the case of the word for 'I' Mēwātī has lost the old nominative, preserved by Gujurī, and has substituted the oblique form exactly as has occurred in standard Hindōstānī. In the Gujurī trē, an r has been preserved which has been lost in Mēwātī.

In the declension of nouns, the two languages closely resemble each other. The postpositions used to form cases are practically identical. Thus:

	Gujurī	Mēwātī
Agentive:	nē	nai
Dative accusative :	na	nai
Genitive:	kō	ko
Locative:	mð	$ma\widetilde{\imath}$

The personal pronouns closely resemble each other. Thus:

	Gujurī	Mēw ātī
I (gen.)	mērō	mērō
We (obl.)	ham	ham
(gen.)	mhāro	mhāro
Thou (gen.)	tēro	tēro
You (Obl.)	tam	tam
(gen.)	thāro	thāro

In the nominative singular, both Gujuri and Mēwāti have feminine forms for the demonstrative pronouns.

	$Gujurar{\imath}$	Mēwātī
This	yo (f.ya)	yo (f.ya).
That	o, oh (f. wā)	wo , woh (f. $w\overline{a}$).

The agreement in regard to substantive is very striking. Some of the forms are:

	Gujurī	Mēwātī
I am	$h\widetilde{u}$, $ho\widetilde{u}$	$h\widetilde{m{a}}$
We are	hã	hã
You are	ō, hō	hō
Were (m.pl.)	thā	tha, ha

As regards active verb the agreement is also striking. Especially noteworthy is the agreement as to the formation of the future by adding -go. Thus, marãgo, 'I shall strike'. In most Rājasthānī dialects as well as in Western Pahāṭī, the typical

sign of the future is usually $-l\sigma$, or some related form and not $-g\sigma$. Some of the verbal forms are:

	$Gujurar{\imath}$	Mewatī
I strike	marũ	mārū
We strike	mārā	marā
They strike	mārē	māraī
Present participle	mārtō	mār ^a tō
Past participle	mārĕō	māryo

The definite present is formed in both by adding the verb substantive to the simple present, and not to the present participle. Thus, $mar\tilde{u}-h\tilde{u}$, I am striking.

From the above it will be seen that Gujurī grammar is practically the same as that of Mēwātī. [LSI pp. 925-929]

GUJURĪ OF HAZARA

The following grammatical sketch is based on the Gujuri spoken in Hazara and in the Galis of the Murree Hills.

Nouns. Obl. sing. and nom. plur. are the same as nom. sing. Nom. feminine plur. ending in $-\bar{\imath}$ add nasalisation and those ending in consonants add $-\bar{\imath}$ to the nom. sing. form. Thus, $bakr\bar{\imath}$, 'a goat', nom. plur. $bakr\bar{\imath}$, $tr\bar{\imath}mt$, 'a woman', nom. plur. $tr\bar{\imath}mt\bar{\epsilon}$. Obl. plur. add nasalisation or $-\bar{a}$ to the nom. sing. form. Thus, $ghor\bar{a}$, 'a horse', obl. plur. $ghor\bar{a}$.

The postpositions are:

Agent: $-n\bar{e}$ Acc.-dat.: -na, $-k\bar{e}$ Abl.: $-t\bar{e}$, $-t\bar{a}$, $-t\bar{o}$ Gen.: $-k\bar{o}$

Loc. : $-m\tilde{a}$, 'in'; -bichch, 'in'; -tar \tilde{u} , 'up to'.

There does not seem to be any locative or agentive case formed by adding $-\bar{e}$, such as we find in Western Pahāṛī, but on the other hand, an ablative is formed by adding $-\bar{e}$, as in $dar\bar{e}$, 'from far'. The genitive postposition $-k\bar{e}$, is, as usual, an adjective. When agreeing with a masculine noun in the oblique singular, or in the nominative plural it becomes $-k\bar{e}$, when it agrees with a masculine noun in the oblique plural it becomes $-k\bar{e}$, when agreeing with a singular feminine noun it becomes $-k\bar{e}$ and when agreeing with a feminine plural it becomes $-k\bar{e}$. When, however, it is governed by certain postpositions, it becomes $-k\bar{e}$, as in $gh\bar{e}_r\bar{e}_r-k\bar{e}_r$ $n\bar{e}_l$, 'with the horse'.

Adjectives. Adjectives in -\varphi follow in their declension the model of the genitive.

Pronouns. The nominative forms of the first two personal pronouns are $h\tilde{u}$, 'I'; ham, 'we'; $t\tilde{v}$, 'thou', tam, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns are $y\bar{v}$ (fem. $y\bar{a}$), 'this', and \bar{v} , $\bar{v}h$ ($w\bar{a}$), 'that'.

The relative pronoun is jo, 'who'. The interrogative pronouns are kon or kaun, 'who?' and ke, 'what?'. [Lsi p. 931]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is conjugated as under:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$h ilde{\sigma} \widetilde{m{u}}, \ h ilde{m{u}}, \ h ilde{m{e}}$	hōã, hã
2.	hŏē, hai, ai	hõo, hō, ō
3.	hõē, hai, ai	hõē, haĩ, aĩ, h ẽ

The past is tho, plur. tha; fem. thi, plur. thi. It does not change for person.

Active verb. The infinitive is formed by adding $-n\tilde{o}$ $(-n\tilde{o})$ to the root, as in $h\tilde{o}n\tilde{o}$, 'to become'. An oblique is formed by adding -an (-an), -un (-un), or $-\tilde{o}n$ $(-\tilde{o}n)$; thus put $h\tilde{e}h\tilde{o}n$ $j\tilde{o}g\tilde{o}$, 'worthy to be called a son,'

The present participle is formed by adding -to to the root, as in marto, 'striking'; jauno, 'to go' makes jato.

The past participle is formed by adding $-e\bar{o}$, to the root, as in $m\bar{a}r\bar{e}\bar{o}$ fem. $m\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, 'struck'. Roots ending in $-\bar{a}$, add $-y\bar{o}$, as in $kh\bar{a}y\bar{o}$, 'eaten'.

The imperative has its 2nd person singular the same in form as the root; while the plural adds $-\bar{o}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}r$, 'strike thou'; $m\bar{a}r\bar{o}$, 'strike ye'.

The old present and present subjunctive is conjugated as follows:

'I strike, I may strike', etc.

	Sing.		Plur.
1.	m ā r \overline{u}		mārā
2.	m ā rē		mārō
3.	mārē		marē

The future is formed by adding -go to the old present, which changes for gender and number; thus, mārēgo, 'you or he will strike'; mārēgō, 'you (fem.) or she will strike'.

The tenses formed from the past participle are as usual, except that intransitive verbs nasalise the final - \bar{o} of the participle in the first person singular only. Thus, $h\tilde{u}$ $g\bar{e}\tilde{o}$, 'I went'; $\bar{o}h$ $g\bar{e}\bar{o}$, 'he went'.

The passive voice is formed with $ja\bar{u}n\bar{o}$, 'to go', and the past participle as usual, as in $h\bar{u}$ mareo (or mare) $ja\bar{u}go$, 'I shall be beaten'. [LSI pp. 932-934]

GUJURÎ OF SWAT

The Gujurī of Swat is spoken by Gujurs and Ajrīs residing in the Swat valley. These people frequently make use of Puṣḥtō words and phrases, but their language, like that of other Gujurs, is closely allied to Mēwātī and Mēwārī. [LSI p. 941]

The following grammatical sketch illustrates the grammar used by the Gujurs in its pure form:

Nouns. The masculine nouns ending -o add -a in nom. plur. and obl. sing., and -ā in obl. plur. Other masculine nouns as well as feminine nouns in nom. plur. and obl. sing. remain unchanged and add -ā in obl. plur.

The genitive termination is -kō which is as usual adjectival.

[LSI p. 942]

Adjectives. Adjectives ending in -o end in -a in direct plural and oblique cases. Other adjectives are immutable.

[LSI p. 942]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of personal pronouns are; $h\tilde{u}$, 'I'; $t\bar{u}$, $t\bar{v}$, 'thou'; v, v, 'he'; v, 'we'; v, 'we', 'they'.

The proximate demonstrative is yo, 'this', plur. yo. The relative pronoun is chi, 'who or what' (Pushtō). The interrogative pronouns are kaun, 'who?'; kī, 'what?'. [LSI p. 942]

Verbs: Auxiliary verbs and verbs substantive. The present tense is hai, for all numbers and persons.

The past masculine singular is $th\bar{o}$, plural $th\bar{a}$, fem. $th\bar{\imath}$, for all numbers and persons.

Finite verb. The infinitive is formed by adding -an to the root; thus, maran, 'to beat'.

The present participle is formed by adding -tō to the root and past participle by adding -iō; thus, martō, 'beating', māriō, 'beat'.

Active verb. The present tense is formed by adding personal endings to the root. The personal endings are as under:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	ũ	ā
2.	ai	$\widetilde{\sigma}$
3.	ãi	ai

The future is formed by adding -go to the present tense form; thus $mar\bar{u}$ -go, 'I will beat'.

The imperfect is formed by adding $-th\bar{v}$ to the present tense form.

The past is simply the past participle; thus, mai mar-io, 'I beat'. [LSI p. 942]

The following points may be noted in regard to the grammar of the specimens:

The agent case is generally the same as the nominative. Indeed the use of the agent with the past tense of a transitive verb seems to have almost disappeared.

Amongst the postpositions may be mentioned $m\tilde{a}$, 'in'; kanah, 'with'. The postpositions tah and nah are borrowed from Pushtō. They are used indiscriminately to mean both 'to' and 'from'. Thus, ithar-tah a-ja, 'come to this place', and ithar-tah-ja, 'go from this place'.

The present participle is used to form a habitual past. Thus, khāitō, 'he used to eat'. [LSI pp. 943-944]

GUJURI OF KASHMIR

The language of the Gujurs of Kashmir closely resembles that of Hazara and Swat. The main differences are really matters of spelling. Thus, we have -na instead of -na, the postposition of the dative, and kihō instead of kěho for 'said'.

The borrowed forms come from Kāshmīrī, and some of them are instructive. In the word kihō for kahiō, from kahnō, 'to say', we see the Piśācha law of epenthesis coming into force.

We also come across the Piśācha tendency to disaspirate soft aspirate consonants, and then to harden them. Thus, $dh\bar{\imath}$, 'a daughter', becomes first $d\bar{\imath}$ and then $t\bar{\imath}$. [LSI p. 953]

Nouns. The declension of nouns is nearly the same as in Hazara. The only differences are that masculine nouns in $-\bar{\imath}$, like "adm $\bar{\imath}$, 'a man', shorten the $\bar{\imath}$ in the oblique plural, forming adm $\bar{\imath}$, not adm $\bar{\imath}$. So also feminines like $k\bar{\sigma}_{\bar{\imath}}\bar{\imath}$, 'a mare', $t\bar{\imath}$, 'a daughter', and $g\bar{a}$, 'a cow', have their nominative plurals $t\bar{\imath}\bar{a}$ and $g\bar{a}w\bar{a}$, respectively.

The postpositions are:

Agent:

-ne

Acc.-Dat.:

-na, sometimes -kē

Inst. :

-nal

Abl. :

-thũ

Gen.:

-ko. -go

Lcc.:

-ma, 'in, on', -kole, 'near'.

The usual postposition of the genitive is $-k\bar{\sigma}$, but we sometimes find $-g\bar{\sigma}$, especially after a vowel, as in $ti\bar{\alpha}-g\bar{\sigma}$, of the daughters', $-g\bar{\sigma}$ occurs also in the Bāgrī dialect of Marwārī, and related forms are -gai, the sign of the dative in the Maiyã of the Indus Kōhistān, and $-g\bar{\sigma}$, the sign of the dative in the Gādī dialect of Chamēāļī. [LSI pp. 953-954]

Adjectives. As regards adjectives, the only thing to note is that the oblique form of $\bar{e}k$, 'one', when used as an indefinite article, is $\bar{e}kan$. [LSI p. 954]

Pronouns. The nominative forms of first two personal pronouns are; $h_{\overline{t}}^{\infty}$, 'I'; ham, 'we'; $t_{\overline{t}}^{\infty}$, 'thou'; tam, 'you'.

The demonstrative pronouns are $y\bar{u}$, 'this', and $w\bar{u}$, 'that'.

For relative and correlative pronouns we have $j\bar{v}$ or $j\bar{e}_{\bar{i}}\bar{v}$, 'who', and $s\bar{v}$, 'that'. The interrogative pronouns are $k\bar{v}n$, 'who?', and $k\bar{e}$, 'what?'. [LSI p. 954]

Verbs. The verb substantive is thus conjugated in the present:

'I am', etc.

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	$h \widetilde{o}$	hã
2.	hai	$h\widetilde{ar{e}}$
3.	hai	$h\overline{\widetilde{e}}$

The past is tho, etc., as in Hazara.

There is a negative verb substantive nai, 'is not', used for all persons of both numbers, as in is-lāik kō nai, 'I am not at all worthy'.

Active verb. The infinitive ends in $-n\bar{o}$ (-no) as in $h\bar{o}n\bar{o}$, $m\bar{a}rn\bar{o}$. The oblique form ends in -an (-an), the a being dropped if the root ends in a vowel. Thus, $h\bar{o}n$ lago, 'he began to be'.

The present participle ends in -to; thus, hoto, marto.

The past participle ends in $-i\bar{o}$, as in $m\bar{a}ri\bar{o}$. In this form of Gujurī, the past participle frequently takes the suffix $-v\bar{\imath}$, without changing its meaning, as in $m\bar{a}ri\bar{o}-v\bar{\imath}$, $lag\bar{o}-v\bar{\imath}$.

The imperative singular is, as usual, the same in form as the root. Thus, $m\bar{a}r$, 'strike'; $d\bar{e}$, 'give'.

The old present is thus conjugated:

	Sing.	Plur.
1.	mār ũ, ma rõ	mārā
2.	mārē	m a r \tilde{e}
3.	mārē, mārā	mārē

The future is formed by adding $-g\bar{o}$ ($-g\bar{a}$, $-g\bar{\imath}$) to the old present. Thus, $m\bar{a}r\tilde{u}g\bar{o}$ or $m\bar{a}r\bar{o}g\bar{o}$, 'I shall strike'.

The tenses formed from the past participle are as usual, and call for no remarks, except that, in the case of intransitive verbs, the first person is not nasalised as in Hazara. Thus, $h\tilde{u}$ gio, not $h\tilde{u}$ gio, 'I went'. [LSI pp. 954-955]

LIST OF SELECT STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES IN THE VARIOUS FORMS OF GUJURĪ

English	Gu j u r ī (Hazara)	Yūsufzai Gujurī
one	ek	yakō
two	ċō	dō
three	trë	tīn
four	chār	chār
hand	hatth	hath
foot	pair	pair
head	sir	sar
a father	b a pp	yakō bap
of a father	bāpp-ko	yakō bāp-kō ~ (obl.) -kā
to a father	bāpp-na	yakō bāp-tah (<i>Puṣḥt</i> ō)
two fathers	dō bāpp	dō bāp
I am	$\mathbf{h}\mathbf{\widetilde{u}}\;\mathbf{h}\mathbf{\widetilde{\overline{u}}}_{ullet}\;\mathbf{h}$ ō $\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$	hữ hai
thou art	tỗ ai, hai	t u hai
he is	ō ai, hai	wuh hai
we are	ham hã	ham hai
you are	tau ō, hō	tam hai
they are	wē aĩ, haĩ, hẽ	wē hai
I was	$ ext{h}\widetilde{ extbf{u}}$ $ ext{th}\overline{ ext{o}}$	hữ tho
thou wast	tō thō	h ũ thō
he was	ō thō	wuh tho
we were	ham tha	ham tha
you were	tam tha	tam thā
they were	wē thā	wē thā

Gujurī (Hazara)	Y ūs ufzai Gujurī
maĩ ho ũ gō	hữ hữgō
hữ mārữ	hū mārū
tõ märē	tõ mārai
ō mārē	wuh m a rai
ham mārā	ham mār ā
tam mārō	tam mārō
wē māi ē	wē māraī
mē mārēo	mai mārio
tē mārēō	taī mārio
us-nē mārēō	us (~ us-nē) māilo
ham-nē mārēo	ham-nē māriö
tam nē mārĕō	tam-n ē māriō
unh ẽ maréō	un-në māriō
hữ-mārũgō	hữ mãr ữ go [181 pp. 964-981]
	maî hoữgo hữ mărữ tổ mārē o mārē ham mārā tam mārō wē mārē mã māreo tē māreo us-nē māreo tam nē māreo unhē mārēo

PUBLICATIONS

of the

Vishveshvaranand Vishva Bandhu Institute of Sanskrit and Indological Studies (P. U.)

	odnakiti dilu iliubiogicai Studies (P. U.)		
1-3.	G. A. Grierson Linguistic Survey of India— A Summary, by Siddheshwar Varma, Pts. I-III,		Rs. Ps. 150-00
4.			30-00
5.	New Varttikas to Panini's grammar, by Vishva	***	30-00
	Bandhu and Munishwar Deo	•••	8-00
6.			
4	interpretation: A specimen, by Vishva Bandhu and S. Bhaskaran Nair	•••	7-00
7.	A History of the Kerala School of Hindu A. nomy, by K. V. Sarm:		
0		***	20-00
8.	Bibliography of Kerala and Kerala-based works on Hindu Astronomy, by K.V. Sarma	•••	17-50
9.	Yadava Inscriptions from Ambe Jogai, by Aigy		
	Mitra Shastri	•••	8-50
10.	Candra-sphutapti of Madhava. C. Ed. with Trans-		
	lation and Introduction by K. V. Sarma	•••	6-00
11.	Decennial Index to the Vishveshvar anand Indolo-		
	gical Journal, vols. I-Y. (1963-1972), by K. V. Sarma		18-00
12.	Bibliography of Kautiliya Arthasastra, by Ludwik		
10	Sternbach		5-00
13.	Kşudrakalpusutra with the Com. Jitvisu Cr. Ed.		
1.4	by B. R. Sha ma	0-0-0	42-00
14.	Kangari A descriptive study of the Kangra valley		
16	dialect of Himachal Pradesh, by Sayam Lal Sharma	•••	30-00
15.	Sphutanirnayatantra of Acyuta with auto-commentary,		
16	Cr. Ed. with Intro. and Appendices by K. V. Sarma	•••	12-00
16.	Bhasikasutra of Maharsi Katyayana with two coms.,		100.4
17.	Cr. Ed. by Braj Bihari Chauney Descriptive Catalogue of Man escripts of VVBIS & IS.		24.00
	Paniah University Hashianness by D D Ct.		20-00
18.	Candracchayaganita of Nīlakantha, Cr. Ed. with Intro.,	•••	20-00
	I rans and Annendices by V Comme		10-00
19.	Siddhantadarpana of Nilakantha, Cr. Ed. with Auto-	•••	10-00
	10m Intro Trans and Arr by V V C.		12-00
20.	Rasigolasphutaniti, Cr. Ed. with Intro., and App.,	•••	12-00
	by K. V. Sarma		9-00
21.	Vakyapadiya-Sambandha-Samuddeśa A critical study	•••	9-00
	by Virendra Sharma	140	50-00
22.	Tantrasangraha. Cr. Ed. with two Coms., Intro and		
16/20	5 Appendices, by K. V. Sarma		50-00
23.	Jyotirmīmāmsā of Nīlakantha Somayāji, Cr. Ed. with		
	intro and 5 Appendices by K V Corms	• •	15-00

Available from:

Vishveshvaranand Book Agency P.O. Sadhu Ashram, Hoshiarpur (Pb., India)